Beginning in this issue—a book review department as distinctive as it is engaging and serviceable: Books in Our Alcove: edited by Leon Whipple

THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

OCTOBER 15, 1924

Homes for Old Folks or Old Folks Homes?

The Psychiatrist's Day in Court

A Child Labor Catechism

Articles by

Alexander Johnson; Florence Kelley; Robert W. Bruère; Homer Folks; Thomas W. Salmon; Mary Beard; Eleanor Bushnell Cooke and others

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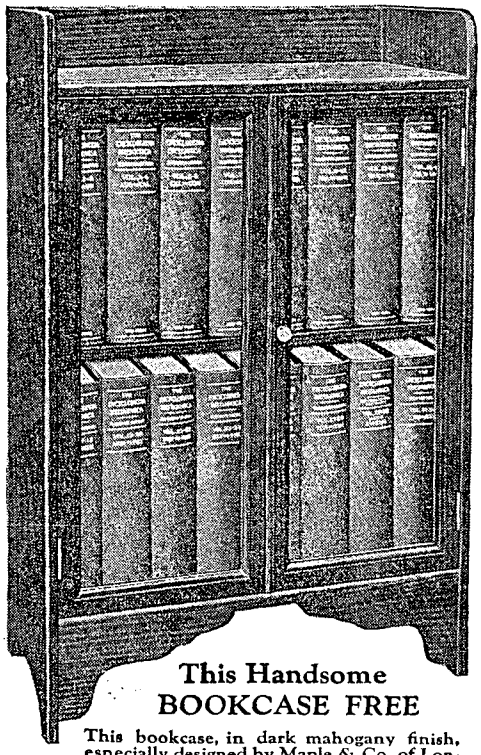

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Talks from my Outlook Tower

By PATRICK GEDDES

THE editors of The Survey first heard snatches of them under the big oak in Gramercy Park. That was the summer Professor Geddes slipped in and out of New York, on his way from India to Edinburgh, a slight, spare figure, long-bearded, with the look of a savant and the whimsical speech of the Scot, giving his lecture at the New School for Social Research. You would have to roll up your ideas of Marco Polo, and Darwin and Archimedes, of the Encyclopedia Britannica and of Peter Pan, to get a clearer notion of the measure of this man.

—Who took an old romantic building on the High Street of Edinburgh, and turned its castellated roofs and outlook tower into such an observation post of the civic life about him, such as can only be compared to the astronomer's dome.

—Who, building on LePlay and Comte, carried the idea of the "regional survey" into British thought—from thence it is spreading around the world.

—Who directed town planning exhibits at London, Edinburgh, Dublin, Belfast, Ghent, Paris.

—Who has made city plans for Bombay, Lahore, Madras, Calcutta.

—Who has planned universities for Indore, Jerusalem, Bengal, Hyderabad.

—Who has fashioned everything from mosques and temples to zoological gardens.

—Under whose touch the stones and squares and buildings, the life and labor of the modern town, east or west, unfolds with romance, with history, with colorful human significance, with philosophy and prophecy, such as the man in the street little dreams of.

ON his American visit Professor Geddes touched, as was his wont, a handful of people—kindling them—stretching their imaginations—city planners, economists, sociologists, artists, journalists, architects, young university men, veterans in civic enterprise. How to spread the infection of the man was the quandary confronting us. For the most part it has been communicated only by word of mouth. Even his best friends said that more could not be done. The conspiracy to contrive it has taken over a year. But this summer, back again from India, Professor Geddes has been at his old Outlook Tower on the High Street of Edinburgh, revising a sheaf of informal papers which will appear throughout the year in Survey Graphic.

Sick at Heart

TUBERCULOSIS has been pushed from its place as arch-executioner. In some favored cities and states it now stands sixth on the mortality tables. And in its place, in most parts of the country, is heart disease, now the chief cause of death in these United States.

Last year organic heart disease killed nearly three times as many people in New York City as did tuberculosis; more than twice as many as cancer; more than half again as many as pneumonia. Moreover it usually kills by inches. A death from heart disease has typically back of it a story of infection in childhood or early adult life, of loss of working power in the most productive years, of a decade or more of slowly waning strength, leading to invalidism, dependency, and finally to death.

FORTUNATELY heart disease, like the "white plague," often is curable. It is preventable. But the organization which should be brought to bear on this most costly of human ills must run the whole gamut of the seven ages—from childhood when it is to be prevented, through the middle years when it may be arrested and cured, to old age when its disabilities may be alleviated. We of the United States are on the threshold of an organized onslaught upon it which promises rewards as rich and as startling as those of which the tuberculosis campaigners dreamed daringly twenty years ago.

SURVEY GRAPHIC for November will bring out a notable group of articles on the need and methods of this campaign, which has come almost heralded and unrecognized into the arena of challenging social effort.

HAVEN EMERSON, M.D., president of the New York Heart Association, and associate editor of the Survey, will outline the battle to be waged and tell of the skirmishes already won.

WILLIAM H. ROBEY, M.D., of Boston will bring the national program for prevention and treatment of heart disease down to scale, so that every reader may see where he can take hold in his own community.

ELIZABETH PORTER WYCKOFF, Samuel McCoy, Hannah Mitchell, Lewis Hine (with a new series of work portraits) will interpret this adventurous crusade in terms of the men, women and children in hospital, clinic, school or at home, to whom it brings the chance for usefulness, happiness, life itself.

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THE SURVEY

Midmonthly Number

Vol. LIII, No. 2 October 15, 1924

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The Gist of It

"GIVE us, please, a book department that will serve the expert and interest the layman." Books in Our Alcove (p. 97) is the answer to this invitation made by Leon Whipple who, this month, with the opening of our new publishing year, becomes literary editor of The Survey. On the shelves in our alcove will be found of course the books brought out in those fields of social concern which the Survey has made its own. Here the student (and browser) may hope to find not only reviews and appraisals of books on social work and practice, health, education, industrial relations, civics, race problems and the like, but also discussions of ways for making the most of books as tools of social interpretation. The editor and his contributors will go beyond reviews (though these will be the back-bone) to take up questions of research and writing, editing and publishing. The alcove will be a seminar without being dull.

DOCTOR of humane letters would be a better degree for Mr. Whipple than a mere Master of Arts. For he loves people and books. He has led a double life—in the hurly-burly of newspaper editing in Richmond and Washington, in the academic shades of the University of Virginia and in his present tenure as professor of journalism in New York University. This humania may explain why he will handle a companion department in the Graphics where he will still love books, but love them in society. Here he will point out how the printing press can be a greater servant—how authors and publishers and artists and libraries and critics can carry their message farthest. Here he will seek the human note in our novels and plays and poetry—their social significance if you will—and try to test letters by life.

PENNSYLVANIA was the last great industrial state to adopt a workmen's compensation law; it was the first great industrial state to adopt what amounts to an old-age pension law. After the Pennsylvania custom, the law met its first set-back in the lower courts. The situation is reviewed by Mr. Bruère, industrial editor of The Survey. (p. 69)

HOMER FOLKS, secretary of the New York State Charities Aid Association, takes up the care of the aged in a way which challenges not only public action but the traditional trend in private philanthropy. (p. 71)

THOSE who read Alexander Johnson's Adventures in Social Welfare need no explanation of why we turned to him for an appreciation of the career of that patriarch of social work, Timothy Nicholson. Indiana was the adopted state of both of them. (p. 72)

WHEN all America was waiting for the sentence passed by Judge Caverly in the Leopold-Loeb case, there were many who looked beyond the fate of two self-vaunted youthful murderers, to the aftermath of social credit or debit which would follow so startling a case. In Survey Graphic for October, (Old Law and New Understanding) Dr. Kirchwey discussed the trial as "a fingerpost in criminology," pointing toward a more understanding treatment of the criminal, prophesying "Henceforth, the psychiatrist, with the new knowledge of morbid psychology at his command, will have his day in court." But the Leopold-Loeb case gave to the psychiatrist at least the dawn of this new day. How did he use it? What did psychiatry give to the cause of justice and humanity, and what did it gain—or lose—in its spectacular encounter with the legal machine? How can it best be used to illuminate and broaden the older, formal conceptions of responsibility and righteousness? In this issue Dr. Salmon, professor of psychiatry at Columbia University, long medical director of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, discusses this "*cause célèbre* of the century thus far" from the standpoint of a profession whose members spend their lives in dealing with the consequences of abnormal behaviour. (p. 74)

WE are told that President Masaryk of Czecho-Slovakia is writing his reminiscences. That should prove to be one of the most interesting human documents of these decades. That his new republic is facing the future in constructive ways was illustrated when the Y. M. C. A. was called into Prague (soon after the war) to carry out a survey of the city. The results were brought out in a series of volumes, later interpreted in a special number of this magazine (June 1921). This summer the same spirit lay back of the conference in Prague which took up industrial engineering and efficiency and drew over seas some of our leading American engineers, among them Morris L. Cooke, chairman of the Giant Power Commission of Pennsylvania. Mrs. Cooke, who accompanied him, writes delightfully of the sessions. (p. 82)

S. R. LAMB, secretary of the Sheffield Joint Hospitals' Council of Sheffield, England, describes (p. 85) an experiment that disproves the cynic's observation that "the Sheffielder's heart is as hard as the steel he makes."

MARY BEARD, general director of the Community Health Association of Boston, brings to the interpretation of the work of the Boston Health League (p. 86) the same wealth of experience which distinguishes her recent book The Nurse in Public Health.

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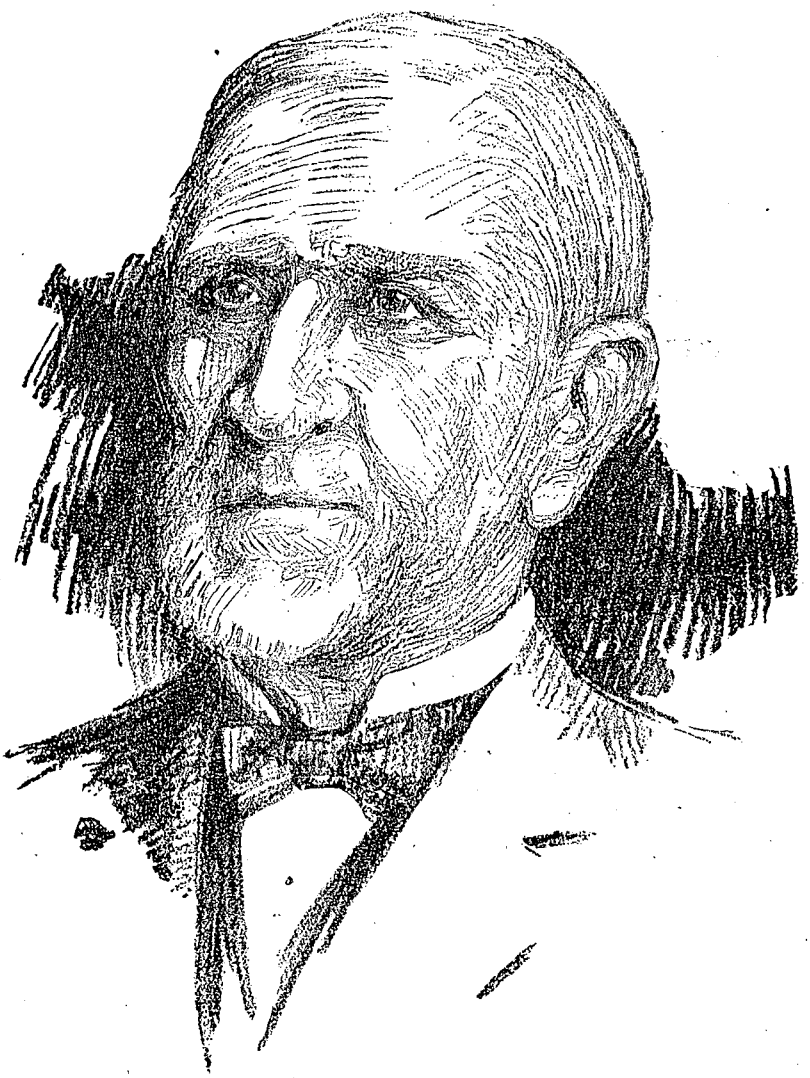

Drawn from photograph
by Abby E. Underwood

The Oldest Social Worker of Them All

TIMOTHY NICHOLSON

1829—1924

See page 72

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THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

October 15
1924

Volume LIII
No. 2

Unconstitutional and Void

By Robert W. Bruère

BY the Court: "This Act manifests a desire to do good; it indicates a love toward mankind; an effort to promote happiness; in fact, it comes within all the definitions of benevolence. . . . We are left in no doubt that this statute offends against Section 18, Article III, of the Constitution and must therefore be declared void."

The act at bar was that of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania passed on May 10, 1923, creating an Old Age Assistance Commission, an Old Age Assistance Superintendent, and requiring each county to establish an Old Age Assistance Board. Subject to its provisions, every person, while residing in the commonwealth, was entitled to assistance in old age. The amount was limited to a sum which, when added to the income of the applicant from all other sources, would not exceed $1.00 a day. Applicants must have attained the age of 70 years, must have been citizens of the United States for 15 years, and residents of the commonwealth for 15 years immediately preceding application; or if they could show 40 years of discontinuous residence, at least 5 consecutive years must have immediately preceded. Inmates of prisons, workhouses, insane asylums, reformatory or correctional institutions were excluded; so also were wife- or husband-deserters; those who had failed to support their children; tramps, beggars; and all who might have a child or other person responsible under the law and able to support them. Assistance might not be granted either to an individual or a married pair having property exceeding $3,000 in value. The Act further safeguarded the interests of the commonwealth by providing that upon the death of the beneficiary, the total amount paid for assistance together with interest at 3 per cent was to be deducted from his estate and paid into the state treasury. Moreover, the assistance commission might as a condition of granting aid, require that all or any part of the applicant's property be transferred to it for control and defense or prosecution of suits concerning it. For putting the Act into operation, the legislature appropriated the sum of $25,000.

If the Pennsylvania Old Age Pension Act is unconstitutional, the acts of 1923 passed by Montana and Nevada, and such other old age pension acts as may hereafter be passed by state legislatures, might, by the same process of reasoning, be declared an offense against the limitations on the general police powers as expressed in the "due process" clauses of state constitutions.

The spirit of the act was expressive of the modern attitude toward the valiant poor who are making a last stand against pauperism. There are few tragedies so poignant as that of the aged who, having lived useful lives for seventy years, find their homes and their dearest associations in jeopardy because their strength is not sufficient for the final effort to face death in honorable independence. In a joint resolution passed in 1910, the New Jersey legislature declared that "the so-called civilized industrialism of our day can be subject to no stronger criticism than the charge fortified by universal experience that the men and women whose productive energy has contributed so much to our wealth, progress and development, leading simple, inex-

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pensive lives, become in their declining years powerless, principally because they are penniless." Military nations have traditionally recognized that security against this most bitter indignity was due their soldiers. Always we ourselves pension our men of war and their dependents out of the public treasury. The Act of Pennsylvania creating an Old Age Assistance Commission may be construed as an effort on the part of the citizens of our foremost industrial state to apply this principle to the honorably discharged soldiers of industry. But the Court of Common Pleas declares the Act an offense against the section of the State Constitution of 1874 which provides that "No appropriation, except for pensions or gratuities for military services, shall be made for charitable, educational or benevolent purposes, to any person or community, nor to any denominational or sectarian institution, corporation or association." The Court finds that the Act comes within all the definitions of benevolence, and that it is therefore unconstitutional and void.

The verdict of the lower court is not final; the case will be carried to a higher tribunal for final disposition. Nevertheless the reasoning upon which it is based is of very great importance in its bearing upon other attempts to give state aid to the aged. For the Pennsylvania reasoning may be applicable to the old age pension acts of other states even if their constitutions do not carry such specific provision. The Montana state constitution similarly prohibits appropriations for charitable, industrial, educational or benevolent purposes to any person, corporation or community not under the absolute control of the state. If the Pennsylvania Old Age Pension Act is unconstitutional, the acts of 1923 passed by Montana and Nevada, and such other old age pension acts as may hereafter be passed by state legislatures, might, by the same process of reasoning, be declared an offense against the limitations on the general police powers as expressed in the "due process" clauses of state constitutions.

The action to enjoin the enforcement of the Pennsylvania statute was brought by "plaintiffs, forty in number, being both persons and corporations, averring that they are citizens, residents and taxpayers of the commonwealth." The attorneys for the commonwealth argued that recourse to the constitutional debates would show that the section in the constitution prohibiting appropriations for benevolent purposes was designed to prevent the enactment of so-called "calamity acts" for the emergent relief of persons or communities fallen victim to fire, flood, or other calamity. But the Court held that in ascertaining what the constitution means we must not look beyond the letter of the constitution itself "unless the language is so ambiguous that we need to ascertain what mischief is to be remedied." It could detect no such ambiguity here. The attorneys for the commonwealth argued "that the Act did not offend against the constitution because the appropriation is made to a commission which is an agency of the state, for the purpose of the proper distribution to the persons for whom the appropriation is intended, and is not made directly to any person." But this the Court found to be evasive—an attempt to accomplish by indirection what might not be accomplished directly. Said the Court: "Our single inquiry must be whether this legislation is prohibited by the constitution itself." The constitution prohibits appropriations for benevolent purposes to any person. The assistance contemplated by the Act is "certainly a kindness to persons in old age." The state has for many years made appropriations to institutions for the care of the aged, some of which charge fees and require applicants for admission to turn over their property to their custody. A number of such appropriations are listed among the Appropriation Acts for 1923. The Court could apparently discover no similarity between the boards of directors of these institutions and the Old Age Assistance Commission; neither could it see the validity of the argument that if it is constitutional to make appropriations to maintain old age homes it should also be constitutional to make appropriations to enable people to keep up their own homes.

Those who struggled for years to win public opinion and the law-makers to adopt toward the aged the principle embodied in the Act and who now see their victory nullified, are disposed to charge the Court with a strained interpretation of the Constitution. Officers of the State Federation of Labor who led the campaign for the law are particularly resentful.

> The logic of our courts in interpreting social and labor legislation is indeed mysterious, [says the president of the Federation, James Maurer, who was also Chairman of the Pennsylvania Commission on Old Age Pensions]. For years, our judges who receive salaries ranging from $8,000 to $18,000 a year, have been drawing pensions for life amounting to half their salaries. . . . Our teachers receive pensions from the state. Our state employes, now receive half their pensions from the state . . . . But when the legislature, by overwhelming majorities, declared the state in debt to the worthy aged persons who have given their lives to the welfare of the state . . . the Dauphin County Court is unable to find "a syllable in the constitution which authorizes a system of benevolence for the care and maintenance of aged indigent residents of the state."

It might be assumed that since the pensioners to whom Mr. Maurer refers are employes of the state, some subtle distinction marks the two cases. No such distinction is indicated in the present decision. If *all* appropriations for benevolent purposes are unconstitutional it is difficult to understand why the law providing pensions for teachers and judges, for example, should not be held unconstitutional. An act passed in 1901 provided

> for the removal of judges of the supreme, superior, common pleas, and orphan's court, permanently disqualified by reason of physical or mental disability to perform their judicial functions and duties with half pay for unexpired terms.

This was not challenged as unconstitutional. Indeed, in 1911, it was so amended "as to allow them full pay during the balance of their terms of office and under certain conditions, half pay during the remainder of their lives." Certainly at least in the case of judges in office when this amendment was passed the allowance could hardly have been other than a "benevolence." The wording of the teachers pension act makes it clear that in their case, too, the state's assistance is purely a gratuity to persons. Certainly at least in the case of teachers where the deficiency in the pension fund is covered out of the state treasury the appropriation is a pure gratuity.

It will be interesting to see how the court of appeals will resolve this seeming inconsistency of which the Court of Common Pleas, in its strictly literal interpretation of the constitution, takes no account.

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Home Life for the Aged

By Homer Folks

A LARGE portion of the present actual social and relief activities in the older communities of this country represents the first instinctive reaction of humane, public-spirited people of means to particular instances of distress and suffering which have come to their notice. There was little experience to draw upon, and almost no opportunity for critical analysis of methods or results. For children, orphanages; for the aged, homes for the aged; for the sick, hospitals.

The advent of the full-time social worker, and especially of the trained social worker, has meant a new thinking through of all phases of social welfare, a more searching examination of the principles or beliefs on which they rest, and a more critical appraisal of their results. Among the last of the subjects to undergo this revaluation is that of the care of the aged.

All of us are dependent upon others for actual physical care during one period of our lives, childhood; and most of us during another period, old age. Few of us have the good fortune to be able to take care of ourselves, much less give a helping hand to others, all the way along until the end comes. Ordinarily, during the helplessness of childhood the necessary care is provided by the parents, and during the helplessness of old age it is given by the children, now grown up, and in both cases ordinarily in the home environment. These established social habits, or ways of living, represent the results of a winnowing and sifting of human experience. They may not necessarily be the best ways for all time to come, but they are the best which the human race has yet devised. It is because these ways of living are the outcome of long periods of experience and of trial and error, that modern social work adopts as one of its principles that its activities should require as little departure as may be from normal and usual ways of living.

If we apply this test to the care of the aged, it would imply, first, in the absence of special reasons to the contrary and in case relief is needed, an allowance sufficient to secure care in the normal home environment; second, a salvaging of such capacity for useful work as may remain, though it would obviously be insufficient to provide support in the ordinary channels of competition; and third, institutional care for those who are isolated and have no vestiges of normal home environment, and also for the much larger group of the disabled and helpless.

WHAT do the aged want? We are apt to think of them as desiring a serene, uneventful life, such as would result from the orderly management of an institutional home. As a matter of observation and fact, is this not contrary to all experience? My observation of the aged would lead me to believe that their chief desires are: first, not to be set apart in any way as being aged; second, to be let alone, and allowed to manage their own affairs; third, to stay where they have been living, if possible in the same home circle, certainly in the same neighborhood and physical environment; and fourth, to continue occupying themselves as nearly as may be in the kind of work to which they have been accustomed, or in something resembling that as nearly as possible, having in mind their increasing infirmity.

These so-to-speak fixed ideas of old people often seem on first thought to many social workers to be utterly foolish, extraordinarily unreasonable, short-sighted, and indicating obstinacy. As a matter of fact, they are the very qualities which civilization has slowly and painfully elaborated as the foundation of organized society. Attachment to locality and to individual liberty, and useful occupation, are not these the very traits of character without which any high degree of social achievement would be impossible? After having painfully cultivated these virtues over long periods of time, we cannot expect them suddenly to be put into the discard. Rather, we should treat them with the utmost respect and consideration, even though at the moment they may make the task of assisting the aged somewhat more difficult, certainly more individual. As a matter of fact, these old people may be very much wiser and may understand their own needs very much more clearly than we do. A continuance of established habits, occupations and adjustments may in a great majority of cases mean a much greater probability of health and of a comfortable and agreeable old age than a sharp break with the habits of a life time.

Furthermore, if the modern development of social work means anything, it means increased respect for the personality of every individual whom we would aid. It means persuasion rather than coercion, gradual change rather than abrupt change.

SEVERAL decades ago those concerned with the assistance of needy children, who were doing any considerable amount of thinking about their work, reached the conclusion that as a matter of principle, and as rapidly as possible as a matter of practice, needy children should be kept in their own homes, except when the occasion for their removal was other than poverty; that if the moving consideration was simply lack of resources, the resources should be provided in the home environment and not elsewhere. This principle was unanimously and formally adopted by the White House Conference on Dependent Children in 1909, was reaffirmed by a similar conference called by the federal Children's Bureau in 1919, and is approached more and more closely in actual practice. The factor which chiefly stands in the way of its universal practice is that so large a part of the funds which have been made available by bequests, gifts and organized forms of relief for children, is available only in the institutional form. The orphanage has its endowment and its open door. It is readily available. Comparable resources for home relief have been difficult to secure.

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Have we not reached a time when the same principle, and as rapidly as may be the same practice, should apply to the second period of dependency as to the first, namely, that the aged should not be removed from their normal home environment for reasons of poverty alone? They may be removed because the home environment is unsuitable, or non-existent, or because their physical infirmities are such as cannot be adequately cared for in ordinary homes. The principle, I think, would command general acceptance. To its practice we would find the same sort of an obstacle. The first reaction of the generous-minded to the problem of the aged has been Homes for the Aged. They have seemed to present elements of stability and permanence which appeal strongly to the business instinct. They are so much more obvious and easily understood. They seem simple and easily managed, while any system of home allowances involves complicated questions of discrimination and personal attention. Is it not clear that our whole system of provision for the aged would be enormously more useful if all the funds which have been tied to Homes for the Aged and similar institutions were available for the *support of the aged* either in Homes or in homes, according to individual need?

Probably for a long time to come we will not be able to change the terms of these existing gifts and endowments, though we may have to come to it in the long run. When the matter is gone at, however, in a larger way, such as providing for clergymen or teachers or other groups, in their later age periods, nobody has suggested that they should be brought together into groups of Homes for Aged Clergymen, or Homes for Aged Teachers. Funds have been established whereby supplementary allowances and pensions have been provided. There is no particular reason, however, why the considerations which call for Funds, rather than Homes, for ministers and teachers, should not equally apply to all other classes and groups of people. People generally are attached to their homes, their families, their occupations, and their localities, quite as much as are teachers and clergymen.

The plain lesson to be drawn from all these considerations is that, although we may not be able for a long time to come to change the terms of bequests and gifts heretofore made to Homes for the Aged, there should be, from now on, a concerted effort on the part of social workers and of all students of these subjects, to prevent the tying up of substantial funds intended to benefit the aged to any one particular method of care. Let us have Funds for the Aged, plenty of them, and big ones, but let the application of the income of these funds be unrestricted as to its method; let it be available for care in homes or in Homes.

The rigidity of established voluntary agencies for the care of needy children in the institutional form, and the lack of substantial resources for home assistance, led to the widespread adoption of the governmental widows' pension. Meanwhile, however, the non-elastic institutional endowments continue. How much better it would have been if both private and public resources were applicable for the benefit of children by such methods as their individual circumstances indicate rather than by one fixed plan.

ARE we to undergo a similar process in regard to pensions for the aged? Will the State prove itself more progressive and adaptable to changing social conditions, and to the development of modern thought, than voluntary agencies as a whole, or rather than the terms under which gifts and bequests are made? Whether or not we ultimately arrive at a system of public pensions for the aged (which is by no means a closed question), it is perfectly clear that unless bequests and gifts are as applicable for the assistance of the aged in their own homes or in other homes, as in Homes, we shall find ourselves inevitably pushed toward the adoption of a public system more nearly in accord not only with the development of modern social work, but with the instinctive judgment of all who will devote a little thought and observation to the question of what the aged themselves really wish.

"There Were Giants in Those Days"

A Tribute to Timothy Nicholson

By Alexander Johnson

WITH the death of Timothy Nicholson at 95, ends a life of longer and greater usefulness than is often vouchsafed to a man. Since the year 1861, when he came to Indiana, from North Carolina, he had been helpful in every effort for human social betterment in his adopted state; and had been a leader in most of them. Although taking part in almost every reform movement, he was preeminent in three,—prison reform, educational reform and prohibition.

The writer's acquaintance with Mr. Nicholson began in April 1889. He was a charter member of the Board of State Charities of Indiana, and for nineteen years, until failing health caused him to retire, was chairman of its committee on prisons. In that capacity his wonderful sympathy with the unfortunate, all the more unfortunate because their misfortunes were self-caused, his clear head, his moderation and patience with people who, with whatever errors, were trying, in a difficult position, to do their best; made the duty of inspection in his company deeply interesting. When he had to give a reproof he did it with such kindness as well as justice, that he made friends out of occasions in which most men would have made enemies. In one instance when he had given a faithful but gentle rebuke to the superintendent of one of the great state institutions, the man said, in telling me of it later, "I would rather be called down by Timothy Nicholson than praised by most men."

The quality which made Mr. Nicholson so preeminently useful was that of leadership. When he settled in Rich-

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mond, in 1861, he at once took a prominent position in the Society of Friends. He soon became clerk (which really means chairman) of the Richmond meeting, and later for many years, was clerk of the Indiana Yearly Meeting. A few years later he was elected a member of the governing board of Earlham College which under his influence became one of the best and most liberal of the small colleges of the Mid-West.

It was natural for the religious body which had given John Howard and Elizabeth Fry to the world, to be interested in prison reform. In 1867, the representative body of the Indiana Yearly Meeting of Friends, appointed a committee "to organize a system for the reform of juvenile offenders and the improvement of prison discipline." Mr. Nicholson was one of its first members and was soon made chairman. His annual reports, made to the representative body, now called the permanent board, form a comprehensive history of prison and other reform in Indiana, during nearly fifty years of wise, patient and patriotic effort.

The method of work adopted under Mr. Nicholson's influence by the Friends' committee was, by visits and personal observation, to learn the actual conditions in the various state and county institutions—prisons; jails; poorhouses; orphan's homes; etc. Each "meeting" was asked to appoint a committee "of discreet Friends," men and women, who should visit the public institutions in their neighborhoods and report the facts disclosed to the meeting. Then the members, by petition, by influence on the state and county officials and then on the legislature, and especially by informing the general public, endeavored to redress the evils that were found, never merely criticising but always presenting a plan of betterment.

Among the notable results obtained by these wise and practical means, results which were largely and in some cases almost wholly due to the work of the Friends, may be mentioned the establishment of the boy's reformatory; the woman's prison and girl's reformatory; the correction of many abuses in the prisons, insane hospitals, and poor asylums; the beginning of the county orphan's homes by which children were taken out of the poorhouses; the creation of the Board of State Charities and many minor reforms. The influence of the Friends in all these matters was in much larger proportion than their numbers. In all this effort Timothy Nicholson was the leader. When other people became discouraged or tired, his faith, hope and patience, like his charity, never failed. He had the great satisfaction of seeing one after another of the causes he had championed, come to success.

Mr. Nicholson had the rare quality of moderation which reformers so often lack. He said to the writer, alluding to the rather slow progress of some prison reforms which the Board of State Charities was promoting: "We must not expect complete success at a jump. Real reforms come slowly. If we only gain a little, keep at it and we shall win." But with all his patience in merely administrative matters, when it came to a question of principle he was inflexible. On the occasion of the first report of the state board, I had written the section on the Prison North and had given a severe statement of the iniquitous "slop contract" which then prevailed. When I had read the report, one member raised the question of the probable consequences of publishing the unpleasant facts and asked me what I thought was likely to ensue. I told the board that as the warden was supposed to be the most influential politician of his party in the state, and his party was in power, it would arouse his animosity and his friends in the legislature might either wipe out the board or reduce its appropriation to an extent to make it useless. Then Timothy Nicholson said, "Alexander Johnson, does thee think we *ought* to make the report as thee has written it?" And on my reply that we could do no other if we were to preserve our own self-respect, he said "Mr. Chairman, I move that we publish the report as the secretary has written it." And, of course, the board voted unanimously for his motion.

Mr. Nicholson and Oscar McCulloch were easily the commanding figures in the board. They each attended the National Conference of Social Work, then called "of Charities and Corrections." Each of them was president of the conference. When the conference met in Washington, in 1901, Jeffrey Brackett was chairman of the committee on nominations. He came to me with the question, "We are going, next year, to Detroit. For the Mid-West we want one of your good Indiana men for president. Who is the best?" I at once named Mr. Nicholson. Now Timothy Nicholson, though often attending had seldom been heard. His theory of participating in a discussion was to keep silent unless the thing that needed saying was not being said by any one else, and my inquirer questioned his ability. But I knew the man; what sterling qualities, what knowledge, wisdom, balanced judgment, fairness, insight, sympathy and absolute integrity of thought were his; what ability of leadership he had shown for fifty years among his own people. In choosing him they gave the conference one of the worthiest in its long line of worthy presidents. An interesting sidelight on Mr. Nicholson's character was seen when it came to choosing the preacher of the conference sermon, a duty always incumbent on the president. He came to me and asked if I knew a Catholic priest of liberal mind and ability and on my recommendation he, an orthodox Quaker who was as much in earnest in his religion as in everything else, invited Rt. Rev. John Lancaster Spaulding, Catholic Bishop of Peoria, who gave us one of the great conference sermons.

I must quote a passage from his presidential address because it expresses so well his method and his hopes.

> Progress comes as the result of an ideal. Reformers see the mountain top before them, a distant reality; and though they may not attain the summit, their striving carries them some distance upward and their successors may realize the ideal which they only saw distantly. The universal reign of peace, the prosperity of every fellow man are ideals. Each man, in his own immediate circle, can translate, in a measure, his ideal into the practical and as this is done the world becomes that much better and nearer the ultimate goal of good. "One soweth and another reapeth." "Others have labored and ye are entered into their labor."

It is a moderate estimate of Mr. Nicholson's work and influence in Indiana, to say that for fifty years he has been in all matters of charities and correction the wisest, strongest and most useful citizen of the state. To those who have worked with him, especially those employed in an official capacity by the State Board of Charities, he was a wise, gentle, considerate and unfailing friend and adviser. No one ever reproved a subordinate more gently. No one was ever so unfailing in giving the word of praise when it was due. No one could give such comfort to and inspire such patience in one suffering under unjust aspersion.

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The Psychiatrist's Day in Court

By Thomas W. Salmon, M. D.

IN passing sentence upon the youthful murderers of Bobby Franks, Judge Caverly said that the value of such tests as those used by the psychiatrists to determine the deeper motives for the crime "seems to lie in their applicability to crime and criminals in general" and that they "concern the broad questions of human responsibility and legal punishment." As if to justify his opinion, discussion of this case turned abruptly from the terrible details of the crime and the amazing characteristics of its perpetrators to those larger issues which the type of defense rather than the crime itself forced upon the attention of the public.

Which of these larger issues especially concern those of us whose interest in abnormal behavior lies chiefly in the fact that we spend our lives in dealing with its consequences? What effect will their "day in court" have upon some of the new viewpoints from which psychiatrists have been studying disorders of conduct? What value is the public inclined to place upon the tendency to go far behind an anti-social act to discover and evaluate its causes? Was the opportunity so dramatically afforded to exhibit to the public the methods by which the psychiatrist studies the behavior of human beings a favorable or an unfavorable one? Although for reasons that it clearly indicated, the Court did not take the exhaustive psychiatric study of the defendants into consideration in passing judgment, it is evident that it formed the basis for the statement, "They have been shown in essential respects to be abnormal; had they been normal they could not have committed this crime." If it is the general public belief that it is fruitful to go as far behind anti-social acts as is necessary in order to determine the causes of crime, if people generally believe—with the Court—that the study made by White, Healy and Glueck and their associates was "of extreme interest" and "a valuable contribution to criminology" and if they share the opinion of the Court that this study showed these youths to be "in essential respects abnormal," then the public must also be convinced that there have indeed been raised "broad questions of human responsibility and legal punishment" that must sooner or later be answered.

IN its editorial comment upon Judge Caverly's opinion, the New York World said "to the question of whether Judge Caverly should impose life-imprisonment or death, the alienist as such had nothing to contribute. That was a question not of abnormal psychology but of public policy." Some might not be so certain that scientists "as such" have nothing to contribute to questions of public policy and there might also be a question in some minds as to whether public policies may not sometimes be illuminated by abnormal psychology—the policy toward alleged witches pursued by our forefathers in Salem for example—but, in the broad sense in which it was intended, the statement of the World is doubtless correct. Public policy in England, after Queen Victoria was born, approved of the legal execution by judicial sentence of a little child nine years old. Not only who shall be put to death but, to an increasing extent, who shall be permitted to be born are questions of public policy that, in the end, will be determined by the people themselves rather than by the scientists (or even courts) and will accurately represent their enlightenment, self-control and attitude toward their fellow-men. It is for this reason that the opinion of the public on the questions that the Chicago trial has raised is of such great importance.

It is difficult for an individual to ascertain public sentiment. Although a psychiatrist is sure to be asked for his opinion by a good many acquaintances (and given the opportunity of listening to their views by a much larger number) those with whom I have exchanged opinions concerning the psychiatric aspects of the Leopold-Loeb trial probably do not number altogether more than a hundred. Colleagues with whom I have discussed the case have had equal opportunities, however, and I have learned in this way the frank personal opinions of several hundreds more. Most newspapers commented editorially upon this subject. These editorial views and the large number of letters from readers that were printed in the newspapers make available a very considerable amount of individual public opinion. A study of the views thus presented shows that only a relatively small number of persons share the opinions of the Court that have been quoted above. Fortunately it indicates also the chief reasons for the surprisingly large amount of dissent. Such reasons are worth careful examination. To consider them candidly will aid in finding answers that were asked at the beginning of this article.

THE outstanding reason for public disagreement with the opinions of Judge Caverly regarding the value of the defense's psychiatric study of Leopold and Loeb was frank disbelief in its fairness and honesty. This disbelief was expressed by all kinds of people—lawyers, editorial writers, correspondents of the newspapers, physicians and social workers. In its crudest form it consisted simply in the scornful statement that this new kind of expert testimony showed on its face that it had been bought and paid for and would hereafter be available to anyone who could pay the price. Other persons, a little more charitable, expressed the opinion that the psychiatrists were evidently sincere in their desire to make correct observations and frank statements but quite obviously were misled by the intensely partisan character of the whole proceeding. Everyone who knows White, Healy and Glueck and is familiar with the high standards of their scientific work and the indefatigable search for truth that has characterized all of it realizes that this distrust must have been created by factors entirely apart from the personality of those men. Some responsibility can be attached to the partisan way in which the news of the testimony was very often presented to newspaper readers. One great daily referred to Dr. Healy, upon his first appearance in the court room, as "the defense's $250 a day expert." The implication thus conveyed is no

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more significant than the confidence of the writer of the dispatch in the attitude of those who would read it. When one thinks of the enduring contributions that Dr. Healy has made to the understanding of childhood and the practical management of the conduct disorders of children, many other ways in which he might have been identified come to mind.

This public attitude of distrust, however, had nothing to do with the personal reputations and scientific positions of the men involved. Neither was the partisan way in which their testimony was often treated by the press, wholly responsible. Its reasons lay deeper. They are inherent in the wholly impossible position in which a scientific man is placed in such a trial. With the main facts of the crime admitted, there was no information required by the Court which approached in importance that relating to the pathological seeds of the crime and the way in which they grew into criminal impulses in the minds of the defendants. Yet, through the most absurd procedure that could be devised, the only way in which the Court was permitted to secure this information was by the testimony of experts pitted against each other whose opinions were discounted before they were uttered by the very fact that they represent a special point of view. In the future, research in psychopathology and doubtless in many related fields will throw much greater light than does our present knowledge upon the causes of crime. If, however, expert testimony has then to be given under the same conditions that now prevail in criminal courts, it is certain that no practical use will be made of such new knowledge, no matter how important it may be. In the public mind, if not in those of judges and juries, the testimony of experts employed by different sides will continue to exactly counterbalance. There is only one way to end such a situation and that is to take a lesson from the wise procedure growing up in juvenile courts and have all such studies conducted by experts employed by the court and reporting directly to it. It has been said that this cannot be done under the present form of law. If this is so, it would seem to the layman that such a form of law is no longer a useful mechanism for dealing effectively with human problems, but merely a barrier to progress and a smoke-screen for the concealment of truth.

IT is useless to go very much farther into that phase of public opinion that expresses itself most vigorously by disbelief in the integrity of all psychiatric experts. Everything that they say in court must be entirely without weight in the mind of any person who believes that it merely represents "bought-and-paid-for" opinion. There are, however, a good many people, including all those who know the men who have been named, who fully believe in their honesty and sincerity. It is to this minority that we must turn to gage public opinion as to any practical value that the new psychiatric approaches to the study of crime may have demonstrated in this case. In this minority is to be found a considerable number of persons who are already familiar with the work of Healy in Chicago and Boston, and Glueck at Sing Sing Prison and the Bureau of Children's Guidance. To them there is nothing new in a kind of study that takes account of the whole individual—all the mind and all the body, as well as the environment in which he grows and lives —in determining what factors are responsible for conduct.

In this case, the Court said "It is beyond the province of this court as it is beyond the capacity of human science in its present state of development to predict the ultimate responsibiliy for human acts." Ultimate explanations lie beyond the present (and probably the future) frontiers of every science, but well within the province of psychopathology today are the data for understanding many human thoughts, feelings and acts that, within our own time, have seemed inexplicable. It should be widely instead of little known that the study made of the lives and characteristics of Leopold and Loeb was not a fantastic procedure, conducted only for its effect in a particular case, but the kind employed in all serious studies of abnormal conduct. The psychiatrist of the present is continually seeking, often successfully, to find out why men, women and children have disorders of thinking, feeling or behaving. In many thousands of instances, where there is no question whatever of criminal responsibility, the same kind of inquiry is being made to find out why fear exists when there is nothing to be afraid of, disability when the body is intact, distaste for life when a powerful instinct demands its protection, inability to act when there is urgent need for action, of overactivity when the organism cries out for rest.

Psychiatrists opening their morning papers during this trial must have been startled to find, in place of the customary news, columns of clinical material in no wise different from that which they heard the preceding day as part of a "case history" presented at the staff conference of a psychiatric clinic. Perhaps one such heavy dose of psychiatric clinical material in the newspapers will be considered sufficient for quite a period of time, yet, those who remember the accounts twenty years ago of the evidence in the Thaw case will prefer the new type of clinical evidence to the old. There can be no doubt that those persons whose minds are not closed by disbelief in the honesty of the examiners have gained new points of view toward the ultimate sources of crime that may some day be reflected in public opinion and later in public policy.

THE Chicago trial supplied without cost the kind of popular education that for some time has been earnestly desired by students of crime and criminology. Discussions have been provoked which cannot fail to throw light upon subjects thus far abandoned to prejudice. The indifference of parents and teachers to certain phases of child life has received a jolt and the need for applying preventive measures in abnormal developments of behavior patterns is far more generally appreciated than it was before the new psychology —in an atmosphere of distrust and ridicule—exhibited its methods of study in a Chicago court room. Columns of newspapers are open for discussions which before this trial were not considered worthy of space that might have been devoted to details of crime. A shocking murder and an extraordinary "close-up" of two abnormal personalities has set several thousand persons thinking along novel lines and, in consequence, we are now hearing from entirely new quarters demands for more adequate facilities for the scientific study of crime and criminals. If the utterly useless methods by which alone psychiatric expert testimony can now be heard in court are reformed, and one-tenth of the space devoted by newspapers to other phases of crime is devoted to some of its real origins, the unjust and merciless denounciation of honest scientific men who tried to present the psychological bearings of an abnormal crime may be forgiven.

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The Common Welfare

IN announcing the forthcoming publication of its five-year study of unemployment, the Russell Sage Foundation again reminds the public that averaging good years and bad, 10 to 12 per cent of all American wage-workers—millions of men and women—are always looking for jobs. The investigation covered more than seventy cities in thirty-one states and Canada. Special studies were made in Ohio, Wisconsin, Massachusetts and New York where public employment bureaus have had the greatest development. The investigators reach the conclusion that "we must have public employment bureaus to take the place of private fee-charging agency bureaus." They recognize that the private agencies are performing a useful function in the absence of an adequate public system of employment exchanges. But the temptation to place the fee above the best interests of the seekers after work is so great that the private agencies taken as a whole do more harm than good. Their mere abolition, however, would be no guarantee of an efficient public service. The report advocates a positive program for improving the public employment service. "If we get a good public service the fee-charging agencies and their abuses will become a minor question; they will be eliminated because they will be useless."

Happily the report does not stop at the periphery of the problem of unemployment. It goes extensively into the question of public works as possible regulators of employment; compares the experience of the United States with that of other countries in the planning, organization and administration of public employment agencies; and analyses this phase of the problem from local, state and federal points of view with special emphasis upon the peculiar difficulties presented by immigrants, and Negroes, juniors and casual workers.

THE mounting tide of unemployment during the spring and early summer, now somewhat eased off, has emphasized the seasonal and cyclical factors in the problem. Yet it is an encouraging sign of the times that even under these conditions industrial executives themselves are taking the initiative in bringing to the fore the relation of private management to the human and financial costs of unemployment and related social evils. In The Survey for September 15, we reviewed the report of the Committee on Seasonal Operation in the Construction Industries of the President's Conference on Unemployment in which a number of leading construction companies joined with representatives of the building trade unions in diagnosing unemployment and irregularity of employment in their industries as a problem of planning, organization and administrative control. Now comes an announcement that the Association of Railway Executives has presented a plan to the Interstate Commerce Commission the object of which is to give year-round employment to the more than 2,000,000 railway employes.

Some day it will be borne in upon the conscience of the nation that in good times and bad, millions of men and women in these prosperous United States are deprived of the opportunity of making a living. The public will come to realize that while a considerable portion of this unemployed army are the victims of inefficient management in private and public enterprise, an equally considerable portion constitute the reserve upon which industrial expansion and mobility depend. This reserve may reach exaggerated proportions and is often outrageously exploited. But without such a reserve at all, industrial development would be impeded. When managements have done their utmost to stabilize production and employment through planning and budgetry control, there will still remain the problem of making adequate provision for the distribution of the members of this reserve to the points where new developments call them; and for their protection against economic hardship and destitution while they are waiting to be called. It is for this reason that an adequate system of employment bureaus and an adequate system of out-of-work insurance are not counsels of philanthropy, but essential elements in a sound program of economic and industrial organization.

THE Manufacturers' Record, published in Baltimore, modestly presents itself on its cover with a screeching eagle, wings spread to the uttermost, and the words "Exponent of America." The Exponent knows its readers; it was established in 1882 and this September fourth issue was Vol. 86, No. 10. It showed what it thinks of them by devoting its front cover to scaring them with threats of Hell (capital H) and the devil (small d) about the federal Child Labor Amendment.

The Exponent certainly "was seein' things at night." In thirty blackface lines it tells "What the Child Labor Amendment means," prophesying among other terrors thus:

> This proposed amendment is fathered by Socialists, Communists and Bolshevists. . . . If adopted, this amendment would be the greatest thing ever done in America in behalf of the activities of Hell. It would make millions of young people under 18 years of age idlers in brain and body, and thus make them the devil's best workshop. . . . The only thing that can prevent its adoption will be active, untiring work on the part of every man and woman who appreciates its destructive power and who wants to save the young people of all future generations from moral and physical decay under the domination of the devil himself.

This is the language of fright because of vanishing power. Naturally! If not the mill and factory, then Hell and the devil! What matter schools, playgrounds and ample sleep for little girls in Georgia who can now legally work all night before they are fifteen?

In saner moments, when not besotted with fear, the

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Exponent knows that Congress passes bills to please, not the Socialists, but the "folks back home." From them Congress has heard for ten years how our states as a whole have failed to give to the children the equal protection of the law.

Among leaders of public opinion who induced Congress to submit the amendment, are the Federal Council of Churches, the American Federation of Labor, and the General Federation of Women's Clubs. If these and the nation-wide organizations which are behind the amendment are Socialists, Communists and Bolshevists, how have they so successfully concealed their convictions?

Too long the Manufacturers' Association and its Exponent have mistaken themselves for America, enslaving the eagle and using him for their private scarecrow, making him screech and claw at will. At last a happier day is dawning when Congress and the states will cooperate to protect the children instead of their exploiters.

THE Armenian who has started out for America and who cannot be admitted to the United States because of the American quota regulations nor yet return whence he came because of the Turkish regulations, and the man who is denied American citizenship because his family is abroad and who cannot bring in that family on the ground that he is not an American citizen present two among many of the complicated problems now being handled by the American bureau of the International Migration Service. A refugee eager to go to the Argentine, a Greek anxious to locate relatives in Egypt, a Russian family sent from Constantinople to Belgium under the League of Nations,—all these and others are among the difficulties met by other branches of the Service. The organization is international in plan and scope, having headquarters in London, where Viscountess Gladstone is chairman and Professor Gilbert Murray is treasurer of the international committee. It maintains offices in Warsaw, Prague, Athens, Piraeus, Constantinople, Copenhagen, Paris, Havre, Cherbourg, Marseilles and New York.

The increasingly complex emigration and immigration laws of various countries have increased the volume of work so that the American branch alone has a total of over 5,000 cases. It calls for an organization working on non-political, non-sectarian lines, for men and boys as well as women and girls.

So the work, which from 1921 until the present time has been an integral part of the program of the World's Y. W. C. A., became entirely independent on October first. On that date the American bureau moved to new headquarters on the thirtieth floor of the Metropolitan Life Building in New York. There it will continue under the directorship of Mary E. Hurlbutt and a committee consisting of Dr. Robert L. Dickinson, Mrs. Harry M. Bremer, Joseph P. Chamberlain, Elizabeth W. Clark, Judge John C. Clark, Margaret Curtis, Stephen P. Duggan, Homer Folks, Mrs. John M. Glenn, Francis Fisher Kane, Henry Noble MacCracken, Ruth Crawford Mitchell and Mrs. Edgerton Parsons.

An appropriation for the work was made by the Laura Spelman Rockerfeller Memorial, but after January 1, 1925, the work will be dependent on individual contributions.

In order adequately to carry out its program, the International Migration Service will cooperate closely with existing local and national organizations, such as the Travelers Aid, the Council of Jewish Women, community agencies, Red Cross chapters and welfare societies. Conversely, the international affiliations of the Migration Service will reinforce the work of such agencies.

THERE is civic significance in the fact that the new "home" which the Boston Chamber of Commerce threw open this month is one of the three great office buildings which can pass the time of day with the capstone of the Bunker Hill monument. This significance is due more especially to the fact that the new structure will be a center for a variety of related organizations and activities. It is a piece of vertical city planning. Spread out one story deep its fourteen stories would be a small town in themselves. Five thousand people will pass through the building daily, and in their contacts will reach throughout New England.

When the directors of the Chamber considered the question of a new building there were two alternatives to decide between. One was to have a building solely for their own use such as most banks have, perhaps of ornamental design, and the other was to erect a modern office building of which the Chamber would use but a part. The second plan was chosen as one which would bring the Chamber into closer contact with the life of the city.

The result is the largest and best equipped commercial organization building in the United States—a central clearing house for information for all New England as well as the workshop of the Chamber. The National Association of Cotton Manufacturers, the National Association of Woolen Manufacturers, the Boston Typothetae Board of Trade, the New England Hardware Dealers Association and the Anthracite Bureau of Information are among the first tenants. Nine railroads have already established their Boston freight and passenger offices in the new six million dollar building. In addition to the advantage of being housed together these organizations can hold their own meetings in the Chamber's fifteen dining rooms and use the services of its various departments. The two top floors have been retained by the Chamber for offices and semi-club use of its eight thousand members. They are of early colonial architecture or of the corresponding English period. The aim, we are told, was to make the lounge as "comfortable and informal as are the old homes of our grandfathers and in keeping with New England hospitality of those early days." The Boston Chamber is however by no means a quiescent or reminiscent institution. Under its progressive line of fourteen presidents, from James J. Storrow to Howard Coonley, it has become perhaps not only the largest organization of its kind in the country, and a leaven in modernizing the national body, but also a force locally along civic and industrial lines. It is just now, for example, completing a study as to whether or not Boston should adopt the financial federation plan in the organization of its social agencies.

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The Federal Child Labor Amendment

Ten Answers to Ten Questions

By Mrs. Florence Kelley

Secretary, National Consumers' League

1. What is the text of the Amendment?

Section 1. The Congress shall have power to limit, regulate and prohibit the labor of persons under the age of 18 years.

Section 2. The power of the several states is unimpaired by this Article except that the operation of state laws shall be suspended to the extent necessary to give effect to legislation enacted by the Congress.

2. What does the amendment do?

It confers a power which Congress was supposed to possess, before the U. S. Supreme Court declared unconstitutional the two child labor laws passed by Congress in 1917 and 1919. It is not a child labor law. It is an enabling act. It will enable Congress to pass a child labor law.

3. Why need there be such an amendment?

After eighty years of effort children do not receive through the states, that protection of the law which fundamentally the Constitution guarantees. Congress, therefore, passed two bills. None the less the Supreme Court held both unconstitutional on technical, legalistic grounds having nothing to do with the good or ill of child labor. Nothing remains but to amend the Constitution, if children are to receive equal protection the country over.

4. How do states fail to protect their children?

For instance, in North Carolina, boys may legally work at the age of *12 years,* and boys and girls between 14 and 16 may be employed 11 hours a day.

In South Carolina, children 14 to 16 may legally work 10 hours a day and 55 hours a week, and in Louisiana 10 hours a day and 60 hours a week. In Georgia, orphan children and those with widowed mothers dependent upon them, may legally work at *12 years of age;* and children under 16 may work 60 hours a week, any number of hours a day, and after they are 14½ years old, *they may work all night.*

5. "Do you mean to keep boys of 18 idle on the streets?

No sane person wishes to keep either boys or girls of 18 years or less idle on the streets, or expects Congress to do so. The amendment is intended to give to Congress the same power that the states have always had, and the enlightened ones have increasingly used, to forbid boys and girls under 18 to run elevators, freight or passenger; to be exposed to explosives and poisonous dusts and fumes; to clean moving machinery; to deliver telegrams and messages between 10. P. M. and 6 A. M. Such prohibitions and regulations are recognized as necessary wherever industry is highly developed.*

The amendment must be comprehensive to enable Congress to meet the rapid and unforseeable changes in industry.

* See Children's Bureau pamphlet Legal Regulation of the Employment of Minors 16 Years of Age and Over. September 1924.

6. "Should not a farmer's boy be free to drive the cows to pasture, and pick berries on his father's farm?"

Is it reasonable to suppose that (merely because in the amendment, "agriculture" is not specifically exempted) Congress will rush in where state legislatures have not trodden, to harry farmers about their sons and daughters on their own acres?

In only three branches of agriculture have considerable numbers of children been shown to suffer hardship, i.e., cotton picking, work in beet fields, and truck gardening. Only one state, Ohio, has enacted a statute, the Bing law, to save children overworked (and at excessively early ages) in truck farming notably in large-scale onion fields. But if hardships continue in other states unchecked, why should Congress *not* have power to protect children oppressed in agriculture?

7. Why rob the states of power to safeguard their children?

The amendment does not rob the states of power to safeguard children. It enables Congress to set for all children standards which any state may equal but none can undermine. Enlightened states will not be hurt by having Congress enact, for the whole country, standards which they already enforce. Progressive states will be free to go ahead of any federal law.

8. Will not the amendment entail multitudes of "bureaucrats from Washington, prying into homes, battening on the taxpayers, nagging parents and employers with provisions enacted by Congress thousands of miles away"?

An ounce of experience is worth a ton of foreboding. Under the first federal child labor law, the present chief of the Children's Bureau was the enforcing official. She enlisted state factory inspectors and labor bureaus as deputies of the federal agency. No state refused cooperation. This kept the federal staff down to a flying squadron, issuing to children federal employment certificates wherever state provision was inadequate and inspecting children at work in states whose standards were below the federal ones. During the brief time the federal laws were in force, ten states improved their child labor measures.

9. Where states have good laws and enforce them, why fear that Uncle Sam will intrude?

The number and activities of federal inspectors will clearly depend on the way the states do their own work under their own laws. The comprehensive answer to these questions is that, for a hundred years, Congress was believed to have the power to do the things now feared. Yet it never did any of them. Advocates of the amendment expect Congress to have as much sense in enacting future laws as it has shown in the past, being still dependent upon the votes of parents and employers for reelection.

10. When the amendment is ratified, what then?

Congress will for the third time pass a federal child labor law. This time it will stand.

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INDUSTRY

Cotton and the Eight-Hour Day

FOR months there have been rumblings of unrest in the cotton mills of New England. Investigators for the New York Evening World report that 200,000 of New England's normal force of 315,000 textile workers are idle. In many quarters this unhappy situation is charged against the successful advocates of the eight-hour day who, it is alleged, have placed the New England industry at a competitive disadvantage with the South, where longer hours prevail. The question thus raised has become a political issue in New England. It is to be anticipated that the eight-hour day will become the object of organized and systematic attack. The facts in the case have a great and timely importance to all those who contend that in an age of machinery and scientific invention a first charge upon industry must be to increase productive efficiency while raising humane standards. The Labor Bureau, Inc. has made a study of the eight-hour factor in the cotton industry and its findings are here summarized.

The contention that the South is gaining at the expense of the North is usually based on broad statistics as to the number of spindles or as to the quantity of raw cotton consumed. Such statistics are nearly valueless for this purpose, because they take no account of the varying quality of the product, its price, the profits involved, or the wage-earners employed. It takes more raw cotton to make a given amount of cheap goods than to make fine goods. The cotton used is of a different quality. The result is that an expansion of spindles or of cotton consumed in making the cheaper grades does not mean that finer grades are suffering. It does not really tell us much about the distribution of the industry.

There are three principal ways to measure the extent of an industry. Each has its special meaning. They are:

a. *Average number of wage-earners employed.* This is a fairly good measure, but has the fault that the introduction of labor saving machinery, or variations in the quality and price of goods manufactured, may alter the number of wage-earners more or less than the change in actual output or profits to the manufacturer.

b. *Value of the product.* This is the total net sales of the mills. It is open to much the same objections as apply to the number of wage-earners.

c. *Value added by manufacture.* This the difference between the cost of materials and the total net sales. It therefore shows the amount which can be devoted to wages and salaries, overhead and miscellaneous expenses, rent, interest and profits. It is in many ways the best measure of the three.

These three items are available for three of the principal New England States—Massachusetts, New Hampshire and Rhode Island, and for the three principal southern states —North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia—for each of the years when the census of manufactures was taken since 1909—1909, 1914, 1919 and 1921. By comparing the total for a given state with that for the United States, it is possible to see what proportion of the whole each state contributed in each census year, and to rank the states according to such proportion.

They show that in every census year, by each of the three measures, Massachusetts ranks first, North Carolina second, South Carolina third and New Hamphsire sixth. As among the other two states, certain changes in ranking have occurred as follows:

Rhode Island was fourth in number of wage earners in 1909, and fell to fifth in 1914, where it has stood ever since. Georgia, which was fifth in number of wage earners in 1909, rose to fourth place in 1914, taking Rhode Island's place.

Rhode Island also fell from fourth to fifth place in 1914 in value of products, Georgia replacing it. It regained fourth place, however, in 1921, Georgia falling behind again.

Rhode Island rose from fifth to fourth place in value added by manufacture in 1914, holding its advantage ever since. This advantage was gained at the expense of Georgia.

In the matter of respective ranking, therefore, the net results of the only changes which occurred from 1909 to 1921 favored a northern state—Rhode Island as against Georgia.

In actual percentage of total U. S. manufacture the movement has been somewhat irregular. Let us take each measure separately.

Percentage of total wage-earners employed: In this percentage each of the southern states has shown a slight gain for the period. Massachusetts gained slightly from 1909 to 1914, and then fell slightly to 1921. New Hampshire fell from 1909 to 1914, and then gained in 1921. Rhode Island, after slight ups and downs, finished in 1921 where she began in 1914. These figures are therefore inconclusive in comparisons.

Value of the product: In this percentage the only consistent gainer is North Carolina; Massachusetts and New Hampshire falling steadily, and Rhode Island, Georgia and South Carolina wavering at about the same figure. Rhode Island was in 1921 higher than in any previous year. Georgia was in 1921 lower than in 1914 and 1919, but slightly above 1909. South Carolina was in 1921 lower than in 1914, but slightly above 1909 and 1919.

Percentage of total value added by manufacture: In this percentage the only consistent gainer is a northern state—Rhode Island—which rose from 7.6 per cent of the U. S. in 1909 to 9.5 per cent in 1921. The next best record is by North Carolina, which rose from 11.6 per cent of the total in 1909 to 14.9 per cent in 1919, and then fell back again to 12.8 per cent in 1921. The other four states—two northern and two southern—all showed slight losses. Thus, by this best measure of all, the record is entirely inconclusive, and the southern states have no advantage over the northern. Apparently the industry is being built up in new states, not included in the six most prominent ones, whether in the North or in the South.

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Hours of Work in Cotton Industry

THERE is little evidence in official census figures to the effect that Massachusetts or other New England States had been, up to 1921, consistently losing the cotton industry to the principal southern states, either relatively or absolutely. What is the situation with regard to hours of labor?

The Census has gathered figures as to the average number of persons working in cotton plants having various normal hours of work in 1909, 1914, and 1919.

The figures for the United States as a whole show a marked trend toward a shortening of hours. In 1909 only 1 per cent worked 54 hours or less; 50 per cent worked between 54 and 60 hours, 32 per cent worked 60 hours, and 17 per cent worked over 60 hours. In 1914 1 per cent worked less than 54 hours, but 40 per cent worked 54, 18 per cent between 54 and 60, 39 per cent 60, and a very small portion over 60. In 1919, 39 per cent worked 48 hours or less, 4 per cent between 48 and 54, 14 per cent 54, 32 per cent between 54 and 60, and only 10 per cent 60.

Figures for the six principal states are available separately for the years 1914 and 1919—thus covering the period when the 48-hour week came into general effect in Massachusetts. These figures show some interesting facts, as follow:

Longer hours were worked in the South than in the North in 1914, before the 48-hour week was introduced in the North. During this year 97 per cent of the Massachusetts operatives, and 92 per cent of those in Rhode Island, worked 54 hours, while in the southern states 98 or 99 per cent worked 60 hours.

The northern state which gained least in manufacture between 1909 and 1914 was New Hampshire. This state had longer hours in 1914 than either of the other two.

The southern state which fared worst of all during the entire period was Georgia. This state, both in 1914 and 1919, had longer hours than either North Carolina or South Carolina.

From these facts we may infer:

1. That the tendency to shorter hours is a general one and is not confined either to the North or to Massachusetts.
2. That if a competitive advantage is conferred by longer hours in the South, this advantage did not arise with the installation of the 48-hour week in the North, but has existed for many years, during which northern industry has shown little sign of suffering.
3. That the state making the poorest showing in each group —North and South—is the one which has had the longest hours.

Nature of Product—North and South

IT is impossible to talk intelligently of the effect of hours, wages, or other labor conditions on northern cotton factories unless we know in more detail how far there is actual competition between northern and southern manufacturers. The Census also gives us valuable information on this matter, by its figures on the quality and prices of goods produced.

A classification of the principal woven products of the New England and southern cotton mills reveals, (1) that

COTTON MANUFACTURING (INCLUDING SMALL WARES)—HOURS WORKED

	44 and under	44-48	48	% 48 and under	8-54	%	54	%	54-60	%	60	%	Over 60	%	Total
Mass.															
1914			1,051	1–	935	1–	110,434	97	1,139	1					113,559
1919	388	24	111,303	90	3,284	2–	7,808	6	1,343	1–					124,150
N. H.															
1914							30	1	21,639	99					21,669
1919	11		15,508	73	79	1	5,696	26							21,294
R. I.															
1914					335	1	27,248	92	1,892	7–	8	1–			29,483
1919	67		10,486	29	1,004	1–	24,631	68	97		51				36,336
Ga.															
1914									117	1–	30,602	99			30,719
1919			142		260		1,520	5–	18,871	49	17,490	46			38,283
N. C.															
1914											53,491	99	212	–1	53,703
1919	75		484	1	1,421	2	1,823	3	49,804	74	13,690	20			67,297
S. C.															
1914									1,044	2	45,404	98			46,448
1919			899	1			1,463	4	89,555	82	6,162	13			48,079
U. S.															
1909			304		2,879	1	571		190,998	50	119,226	32	64,902	17	378,880
1914			1,145		3,149	1	158,287	40	72,025	18	157,112	30	1,686		393,404
1919	1,697	413	173,366	39	19,028	4	63,455	14	141,218	32	47,208	10	467		446,852

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the cotton states produce more of the cheaper products such as sheetings, duck and print cloths, while New England produces more of the finer ones such as ginghams, lawns, twills and sateens, and (2) that in each class of product, the value of the New England cloth per pound is materially higher, thus showing that the South makes the cheaper grades of each class.

Taking New England and Cotton States as groups, we see that the New England states in 1919 produced 40 per cent of the country's woven goods by pounds and 47 per cent by value, 34 per cent of yarns for sale by pounds and 42 per cent by value, and 71 per cent of thread by pounds and 79 per cent by value.

In 1919, Massachusetts ranked first in lawns, ginghams, shirtings, twills and sateens; second in print cloth and cotton fabrics; fourth in sheetings. South Carolina ranked first in sheetings, print cloth and drills, and third in lawns, ginghams and shirtings. North Carolina was first in cotton flannel, second in ginghams and shirtings, and third in sheetings, print cloth and drills. Georgia was second in sheetings and drills, third in twills and sateens, and fourth in cotton flannel. Rhode Island was second in lawns and twills and sateens, fourth in print cloth and shirtings, fifth in sheetings. New Hampshire is third in cotton flannel, and fourth in twills and sateens.

It will be seen, therefore, that the development of the cotton industry in the South has taken certain well defined lines which do not bring it in very direct competition with the more important branches of northern industry. It uses the shorter staple cottons, makes more of the coarser yarns, and sells the cheaper kinds and grades of fabrics. These facts should be remembered when comparison of North and South is made on the basis of amount of raw cotton consumed. The South does not specialize in the products where the training and skill of northern operatives are an essential feature.

Results From Census Information

WHILE the census material is not available more recently than 1921, it does lead to certain important conclusions having a bearing on the whole matter. These are:

There has been no net loss of cotton manufacture in any of the New England states, if we look at the *absolute* growth. There is very little evidence of *relative* loss in proportion to total U. S. manufacture, if we consider important measures such as number of wage earners or value added to manufacture rather than misleading statistics of spindles or raw cotton consumed. The most that can be said is that in certain cheaper grades and classes of spinning and weaving, cotton manufacture has grown faster in the cotton-growing states than in the New England states. This growth, as would be expected, seems to have occurred in those products where closeness to the supply of short-staple raw cotton counts most, and where the skill of operatives, favorable climatic conditions, and other factors necessary for the finer products count least.

During the entire period covered, hours in the South were longer than in the North, even before the adoption of the eight-hour day in Massachusetts. As among individual states, there seems to be little or no correspondence between rapidity of growth of the industry and length of hours of work. Taken all in all, therefore, the effect of hours seems negligible, and relative growth must be accounted for by other causes.

COTTON GOODS MANUFACTURING: PER CENT DISTRIBUTION

	WAGE EARNERS		VALUE OF PRODUCTS		VALUE ADDED	
	%	Rank	%	Rank	%	Rank
Mass.						
1909	28.7	1	29.7	1	29.7	1
1914	28.9	1	28.1	1	28.1	1
1919	27.8	1	27.6	1	27.3	1
1921	25.2	1	23.9	1	27.0	1
N. H.						
1909	5.9	6	5.3	6	5.6	6
1914	5.5	6	5.1	6	5.0	6
1919	4.8	6	3.9	6*	4.4	6*
1921	5.4	6	3.9	6*	4.2	6*
R. I.						
1909	7.6	4	8.0	4	7.6	5
1914	7.5	5	7.0	5	8.6	4
1919	8.1	5	8.1	5	8.8	4
1921	7.6	5	8.6	4	9.5	4
Ga.						
1909	7.3	5	7.6	5	8.0	4
1914	7.9	4	8.6	4	7.1	5
1919	8.6	4	8.8	4	7.8	5
1921	8.3	4	7.9	5	6.4	5*
N. C.						
1909	12.5	2	11.6	2	11.6	2
1914	13.6	2	12.9	2	12.9	2
1919	15.1	2	14.5	2	14.9	2
1921	15.6	2	14.4	2	12.8	2
S. C.						
1909	11.9	3	10.5	3	10.5	3
1914	11.8	3	11.2	3	11.2	3
1919	10.8	3	10.4	3	10.4	3
1921	12.1	3	11.0	3	10.1	3

*Rank as among states listed. Outranked by Pennsylvania or Connecticut for U. S.

Imports of Cotton Goods

DURING the fall of 1923 and spring of 1924 a depression developed in the fine cotton goods industry of Massachusetts. Was this due to longer hours worked by southern cotton competitors? Hardly. Insofar as competition played a part in this depression, we find that the competitive goods came from foreign imports, which of course originate principally in England. *Yet in England the eight-hour day is universal in the cotton industry* and virtually all the employes belong to trade unions. Whatever the cause of successful foreign competition, it certainly cannot be attributed to longer working hours.

Square yards of cotton cloth imported grew from 45,498,000 in 1912 to 140,788,000 in 1920 and 219,010,000 in 1923. The value of such imports increased even more, due to rising prices. Out of the total square yards imported in 1923 England contributed 173,064,000 or 79 per cent. By value, England contributed $36,113,000 out of $47,188,000 worth of cotton goods imported, or 76.5 per cent.

Finance of Massachusetts Cotton Mills

IF the 48-hour week and southern competition have been ruining the Massachusetts cotton industry, there would be no place where it would show more quickly than in the profits of the employers and the new investments in the industry. The Labor Bureau analyzed the published financial records of all the mills in the two chief cotton centers of Massachusetts—Fall River and New Bedford, and of probably the largest single corporation manufacturing cotton outside of these centers—the Pacific Mills.

The figures on the Fall River mills are furnished by

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G. M. Haffards & Co., stock brokers. They show that the total capital stock of the mills covered increased from $28,605,000 in 1910 to $43,515,000 in 1923—the increase being fairly continuous, but occuring most markedly in the post-war period, 1920-23, when the 48-hour week was in effect. The total amount of cash dividends paid averaged $1,600,700 per year in the seven pre-war years, 1910-16. It averaged $6,273,800 in the four years 1917-20, during the war and post-war inflation. Though these inflated dividends could not continue, the average amount for the subsequent three years, including the depression, was $3,231,700, or more than twice the pre-war average. The rate of dividend averaged 5.72 per cent for the seven pre-war years. For the inflation years it averaged 18.8 per cent. For the last three years, even on the greatly enlarged capitalization, and including the depression, it averaged 8.07 per cent. The lowest dividend rate of these three years was 7.99 in 1922, which was larger than the rate for any of the seven pre-war years except 1916, when the rate was 8.01.

New Bedford cotton mill figures, from Sanford and Kelley, stock brokers, extend back only to 1917. They show an increase in capital stock of the New Bedford mills from $49,012,000 in 1917 to $72,252,000. During the inflation period cash dividends paid were naturally high, ranging from $6,411,000 or 12.66 per cent in 1918 to $13,337,000 or 26.17 per cent in 1920. In the post-war period they ranged between $5,031,000, or 6.96 per cent on the enlarged capitalization in 1923, and $5,998,000, or 9.72 per cent in 1922. Though we have not the pre-war figures, this profit is undoubtedly larger than the pre-war average, and seems ample.

The Pacific Mills include some of the largest cotton plants in the North. These cover more than 300,000 cotton spindles and nearly 6,000 looms, divided fairly evenly between Lawrence, Massachusetts, and Dover, New Hampshire, besides a print works in Lawrence with 50 printing machines and 80 kiers. Their other properties are a worsted mill in Lawrence with 130,272 spindles and 3,791 looms, and a cotton mill in Columbus, S. C., with 202,048 spindles and 4,800 looms. It is impossible to make a separation between the financial records of these various plants, but obviously if the cotton plants in New England were unprofitable the company would be hard hit.

Published financial records of this firm show that the capital stock (there being no bond issues) was increased from $3,000,000 in 1912 to $12,000,000 in 1913, again to $15,000,000 in 1917, to $20,000,000 in 1920, and, by a 100 per cent stock dividend, to $40,000,000 in 1923. The capital stock has thus increased more than thirteen-fold in twelve years. Cash dividends paid in the pre-war period ranged between 6 and 8 per cent. In the inflation period they ranged between 9 and 20 per cent, on a greatly enlarged capital. They remained fairly high in 1921-1923. The growth in profitableness of this concern may easily be seen by comparing the dividends of the three years 1913-1915 with those of 1921-23. In the first period 6 per cent was paid annually on a capital of $12,000,000, or $720,000. In the first two years of the latter period 12 per cent was paid annually on a capital of $20,000,000, and in the last year 6 per cent on $40,000,000, the amount of cash dividends thus being $2,400,000 in each of the three years, 1921-1923. This is a growth of over three-fold since the pre-war period.

No such record as this is conceivable if the 48-hour week were a cause of losses in the northern cotton industry.

Figures of New Bedford, Fall River, and the Pacific mills are of course not all-inclusive of the Massachusetts cotton industry. But they cover large and important sections of it, and are sufficient to prove that with good administration the 48-hour week does not provide an unmanageable handicap to the profitableness and growth of cotton manufacture.

Pimco

THE term "Scientific Management" was born in Philadelphia, the result of years of research on the part of the late Frederick W. Taylor, engineer. It remained for the new Republic of Czecho-Slovakia to organize at Prague, during July of this year, The First International Scientific Management Conference. There were eight hundred registered attendants representing seventeen different nations.

President Masaryk had prepared himself for his responsible work in moulding the new republic, by research work in various countries. In America he had found what he considered the best model for governmental and industrial organization. Hence the idea of inviting American engineers, specializing in the science of management, to take a leading part in the First International Scientific Management Conference at Prague.

P.I.M.C.O. (Prague International Management Conference) became a familiar sign on the winged badges of the visiting delegates, on the automobiles generously provided to whisk them through the mediaeval arches and the narrow old streets or the broad newer ones, on the doorways of the halls set aside for conferences, for afternoon receptions, or for evening banquets.

The meetings were held in the city hall of Prague. The audience was an intensely interestinging study. The presiding officers agreed that they had never conducted meetings at which the faces of the listeners recorded such respectful attention in spite of the barriers of language. Rarely did anyone leave the room though the sessions lasted from nine to twelve-thirty and from two to five. Several nations alternated in the presiding officer's chair, though the Americans, as especially invited guests, were accorded the lion's share of this honor. Local papers gave a great deal of space to the conference, reporting in detail even the appearance and conduct of the American engineers.

Among many interesting types were a keen Japanese, sporting a large single eye glass; a fierce Barbarossa with beetling red eyebrows and a terrifying moustache; and an elderly professional person, pad and pencil in hand, who followed each speaker from the platform, lest he should have missed a single drop of the precious wisdom dispensed. He suggested the Tolstoi type of Russian, but he was in reality a Czech professor. The presence of eleven Soviet Russians was obviously the cause of considerable apprehension in various quarters, though welcomed by others as a token of good faith and fair play on the part of the conference. The one unsmiling woman, who spoke nothing but Russian, seemed to be the real leader of the group. In a separate room, they exhibited and explained elaborate charts of their intensive experiments in motion study, largely following the lines of the late Frank B. Gilbreth. In reply to a question they admitted that as yet they have not made much practical application of their scientific management

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studies. A Russian paper on railroads, however, claimed definite achievements as a result of scientific management.

The presence of the Russians was doubtless the cause of a sudden and enthusiastic face-about in the attitude of one of the local communist papers, which had heralded the conference as another effort of the capitalistic system to intrench itself through the advocacy of progressive methods of work. As had been the case in America, scientific management was bound to pass through a period of suspicion on the part of European workers, whose knowledge of its principles and technique has been based on hearsay or superficial study.

There were Frenchmen who came from Paris, and Frenchmen straight from their work on the League of Nations at Geneva. The latter were especially enthusiastic over the contributions made by the conference to the development of friendly relations among nations. There were exceedingly zealous delegates from Poland, almost amusingly eager to lose no advantage that their patriotic devotion might secure for their recently enfranchised country.

But of the many who participated in this remarkable gathering, none were so effective as our splendid hosts, the Czechs, through whose initiative the conference was conceived, organized and brilliantly accomplished.

The program included the reading of sixty-four papers of which only about a fifth were presented by Americans, showing the active interest of Europeans in the subject. All addresses were printed in the original for free distribution and many were translated into several languages. The complete list of the titles is of itself so significant and so comprehensive that it is difficult to choose among them. Five papers were devoted to the general subject, scientific management, seven to the application of scientific management to special fields, ten to certain factors of scientific management technique. Others stressed such important phases of the general problems involved, as the social factor in scientific management, industrial research, the individuality of the worker, industrial psychology, salaries and wages, strikes and lock-outs and losses caused thereby, uniform currency, national standardization, uniform organization of knowledge and education, participation of workers in profit and ownership, regard for family in fixing wages. Numerous papers on the definite application of the science in Czecho-Slovakia, evidenced the fact that America was in Prague to learn quite as well as to teach. The Masaryk Academy—Institute for Industrial Management—might well serve as a model for any nation.

Whatever the subject or language, there emerged out of the whole a sense that the underlying idea was one of a comprehensive principle held in common and based on scientific enquiries and scientific answers to those enquiries. The words "production," "standards," "science," "cooperation," "justice," "ethics," "honesty," "reliability," appeared again and again as did such phrases as the "raising of the standard of living for all men," "the adjustment of labor troubles," "anticipative planning," "continuous processes," "large orientations," "fundamental principles." One thing we learned from the group gathered at Prague. Their Europe is not looking to us for any of our short cuts to production, to success or to happiness. She is not asking us what competition has done for us but what we can teach her of cooperation. She wants a scientific solution following a scientific analysis of the problem. She is studying economic forces and laws in order to utilize them with intelligent accuracy.

The direct value of the conference beyond the importance of the technical information and the exchange of views by men of varied experience, lay in the evidence that men of widely different nationalities and training can meet on the common ground of the science of management and apply the general principles of that science to any and all forms of activity. The American delegation was the recipient of such unexpected and unexampled hospitality that it may not be amiss to speak of the gift of 250 books on scientific management and of charts and files which it was their pleasure to present to the Masaryk Academy. This constitutes at the moment the most complete library on the subject of scientific management assembled in any one place. Due to the interest it evoked, similar libraries will be established in other European centers. Who knows? Perhaps in time as complete a library may be in demand in America, the homeland of scientific management.

The relationships established outside of the conference room were no small part of the interest and delight of the conference. At first the natural reluctance of some of our European brothers to make contact with each other was noticeable, as was the equally natural zeal of each to glean for his own country all the information possible. But after days of friendly intercourse, there developed an increasing unity of spirit throughout the conference. Belgian and Pole, American and Russian, Serb and Englishman, French and Austrian, met repeatedly in these and other combinations, at luncheon and at dinner. In fact the general comraderie that developed is one of the happy remembrances of the experience.

As the interesting days drew to a close, and the inevitable after dinner speeches began to reflect the reactions of all to the opportunities we had enjoyed of learning more intimately the minds of our European neighbors, the important contribution that the Americans were credited with making was their apparent ability to be detached from any one foreign viewpoint and to make contact with all. This, the

The American Engineer Speaks

The following inimitable description is translated by a Czecho-Slovak from one of the Prague dailies:

They (the Americans) are hard, manly in their physiognomies, which are far from the smiling simplicity habitually reigning in an American face. Some gentlemen's physiognomies look European-like, concentrated —fatigued. Their elocutions run as a realistic program, never filled with brightness in speaking, but full of inward rhythm of thoughts. They speak by designs. On such occasions an European thinks always of humanity, nation or a certain doctrine and also of himself. But they only keep in mind the matter laid before them for discussion or work. America makes theory a matter of fact. . . . The Americans are accustomed to represent very ceremonially, but when the orator takes the word, the president behaves against him pretty rigidly. The last minute approaching, the president tinkles, it does not matter whether the famous orator just now has said some most important things. The speaker makes a reverence—all right—and leaves the pulpit. It is necessary to learn such a regular and gentleman-like subordination.

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others were good enough to say, furnished a suggestion to them for their future contacts with each other.

For in the minds of many, there seemed to lurk not merely a hope but an increasingly settled conviction that such conferences might be precursors of a better understanding of the pathway to peace. Surely Frederick W. Taylor's many years of strenuous labor to demonstrate the necessity of finding not some way, but the scientific way to the accomplishment of a desired end are bearing rich fruit. The finest testimony to the fundamental nature of the principles which he was the first to define is the fact that they have become the very fabric of the thinking of men in many lands who see in them clues to prosperity, international understanding and peace. ELEANOR BUSHNELL COOKE

Giant Power

THE Right Hon. D. Lloyd George, O.M., M.P., is no longer Prime Minister, but the habit of presiding over committees of inquiry has not deserted him. In March of this year, when another serious stoppage threatened Great Britain's coal industry, he invited a number of people, representative of the various elements in the industry and of the public life of the country, to form a committee to endeavor for the hundredth time to find out what was really wrong with coal, and to formulate proposals for reform. Of his proposals we shall give a fuller account at another time. His analysis of the problem reads like a review of The Survey's Giant Power number, published in March. His point of departure is precisely that from which the editors of the Giant Power number began.

His conclusion is also the conclusion at which the editors of the Giant Power number arrived.

> . . . . Today we find ourselves in the early stages of a second industrial revolution, which, like its predecessor, consists in the application of a new form of power—electricity. The second industrial revolution can give us a clean, in place of a dirty, civilization; and because of the elasticity of the new communication and the way in which power can be made everywhere accessible, it can render possible a healthier distribution of our peopl over the face of the country. Whether we make the right use of this heaven-sent opportunity for redeeming the mistakes of the past depends upon whether we use, from the outset, wise methods of regulation and control.

IN spite of the skepticism of a few of our readers with respect to the question as to whether a far-flung giant power system is actually in process of development in America, and especially as to whether the location of great generating stations at the mines themselves was economically feasible, the promoters of electrical utilities have been quietly carrying forward the interconnection of hydroelectric systems with systems having their base in the coal fields. Last spring, the president of the American Water Works and Electric Compnay announced the completion of a series of cooperative agreements for the mutual exchange of electrical power by nine power companies whose generating plants are located in the heart of the bituminous coal fields (Survey, April 15, p. 73). Last week, the Niagara Lockport & Ontario Power Company, distributor of a large portion of the power generated at Niagara Falls, and the Pennsylvania Electric Corporation, operator of great steam electric stations in the coal fields of western Pennsylvania and Maryland, announced their purpose to interconnect their systems which together, like the interconnected system of the American Water Works and Electric Company, have a capacity of 2,000,000 horsepower.

The development is on; it is progressing rapidly. Unfortunately, there is no available evidence that it is proceeding under "wise methods of regulation and control." Rather there is evidence that in the case of the new electric revolution, as in that of the earlier steam revolution, much of the progress is haphazard. There is danger not only of further congestion of population in coagulated urban areas, but also of wasteful duplication of investment and equipment for which the consumer must ultimately pay.

These are considerations, no less than the proposal of large scale governmental exploration and operation of undeveloped water powers entering into the bill which was introduced into Congress by Senator Norris on March 10 (Survey, April 1, 1924, p. 49), but which has since received all too little attention from Congress, the federal administration or the public.

ONE of the most serious elements in the problem is that large scale electrical development seems to be proceeding without due reference to the inevitable electrification of the railroads in the reasonably near future. The economic feasibility of railroad electrification is still flouted by many railroad executives. In the Giant Power number of The Survey, Philip Cabot said that the waste of coal by the railroads "would have been stopped by electrification long ago had not the financial collapse of our railroad system made the expenditure impossible . . . Over-regulation has ruined the railroads." Henry Ford has a different explanation. In an interview published on September 14, commenting upon the inefficiency of the steam locomotive, he said that in two years most of his Detroit, Toledo and Ironton Railroad would be electrified; in four years all of it. When asked about the electrification of other railroads, he made this aggressive comment:

> That depends upon their managements. Because of the system of stockholding by which the railroads are financed, their management is practically taken out of the hands of railroad men and put in the hands of men who think of dividends and do not give a rap for future service. Of course, electrification requires a large initial expenditure which cuts down dividends, and that is why it is going to be slow.

THE importance of railroad electrification reaches far beyond the transportation companies themselves. There are hundreds of farms and small communities on either side of the railroad rights-of-way that can never hope to have cheap and abundant electricity until they get it as a part of the service which the railroads themselves will require. Moreover, the economic feasibility of railroad electrification will largely depend upon the incidental revenues to be gathered from domestic, commercial and industrial users of electricity on the farms, in the villages and towns through or near which railroads run. The success of the telephone business is largely due to the wide spread use of the telephone service. The same thing is true of successful electrical utilities. The small consumer, while small, is legion. His demand for electric current is not so seriously affected by the ups and downs of the business cycle as the demand of the large consumers. When factories shut down and railroad traffic declines, the domestic consumer still uses lights, still for the most part cooks three meals a day.

R. W. B.

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HEALTH

A Penny A Pound for Health

THREE years ago the Voluntary Hospitals of Sheffield, England, were faced with a debt due their bankers, and worse still, an annual deficit of more than £30,000 in their ordinary revenue, which was driving them into financial chaos and bankruptcy. Today there are 185,000 individuals who consent cheerfully and loyally that a voluntary levy of one penny be deducted from each pound of their earnings for the benefit of Voluntary Hospital Service in Sheffield. Under the old system whereby each of the hospitals competed with the others in asking employers and employees to subscribe to their respective organizations, they obtained in all about £25,000 a year from that source. By this new cooperative appeal £100,000 is obtained each year in regular contributions and a sense of responsibility for hospitals and for health has been created in every group in the city—employers and workpeople, medical staffs and lay boards of management.

The Joint Hospitals' Council was established in 1921 representing every phase of Sheffield life, including the lord mayor, the master cutler, the vice chancellor of the university, chairman of the chamber of commerce, chairman of the Engineering Employers' Association, the town clerk, the leading medical consultants, three lay representatives of each hospital, the Boards of Guardians and the Trades and Labor Council, and ten representatives elected by the contributors. A definite scheme of regular contributions to hospitals was agreed upon—to ask each employe to allow one penny in each pound of income to be deducted from his wages and to ask the employer to add not less than one-third of the amount of his employes' contributions, to be placed in a common pool for the benefit of *all* the hospitals.

Employers' associations and trades' unions were approached. Workpeople were addressed in warehouses, factories and collieries. Publicity was obtained by cinema films, lantern slides, posters, and leaflets. In all this the basic principle of hospital service was emphasized: that the only persons who should receive preferential treatment and unqualified free service were the unemployed, old age pensioners, war widows, children under twelve years of age, and the necessitous poor generally. All other classes in the city, especially those who were fortunate enough to be in health and regular employment, were informed that payment would be expected of them either by the regular weekly contributions of one penny for each pound of income, when they were well and outside a hospital, or by a weekly maintenance charge when they were in the hospital.

A cynic who does not know the Sheffielder has said that his heart is as hard as the steel he makes, but our experiment proved otherwise. The workingman of Steelopolis gladly suffers this voluntary deduction from his weekly wages because he hopes that he never will need the hospitals, and because it may benefit some other poor fellow in distress. He pays because he wishes to have a part in this big scheme of cooperative help; because he dislikes receiving "charity" in its modern sense, and knows that if the day should arrive when he or his family needs institutional treatment without being able to afford the high fees of a private nursing home, he may obtain a letter of admission and enter a hospital feeling that he has earned a moral claim to the best it can give him without further cost. He pays because he prizes good health and realizes that the best benefit he can get out of his hospital contribution is never to enter a hospital at all. He likes the penny in the pound plan because it is a voluntary scheme of direct taxation proportionate to a man's earnings, and because any contribution made by him as a workman automatically earns a handsome addition to the hospital funds from his employer.

Each plant, under the penny in the pound scheme, is registered and receives an unlimited number of hospital letters of introduction, any of which provides free treatment and free maintenance for contributors and their families at any of the five hospitals in Sheffield. No guarantee of treatment is given. Each contributor understands that medical urgency and humanity alone govern the order of admission, and that any priority or preference is given to the poorest patients whether they are contributors to the scheme or not. A contributor who can afford to pay for his own treatment, or to consult his own specialist, or to pay the fees of a private nursing home is not expected to avail himself of the free facilities under the plan. Non-contributors in regular employment are expected to pay not less than five shillings a day towards the cost of their maintenance when they become hospital patients.

The contributors have their own organization, the "Sheffield and District Hospitals' Contributors' Association," and send their delegates to a quarterly meeting at the Cutlers' Hall, the center of the greatest commercial, social and political gatherings in the district when resolutions for the improvement of hospital service are debated and sent forward. The association democratically elects its own executive council, two members of which serve on each of the five boards of management of the Sheffield Voluntary Hospitals. Each place of employment in the district has its own hospital committee, chairman, treasurer, secretary and delegates. Sheffield is a university center and receives patients from an area of twenty miles radius about the city, within which there is a county hospital and many cottage and district hospitals, which have benefitted financially to the extent of more than £3,000 each year from the Sheffield contributory scheme.

The hospitals themselves are the center of a medical organization assisted by the contributory scheme. Ten per

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cent of the income is set aside for convalescent and after-care service. About two thousand patients receive convalescent care each year, at a cost of £8,000, in approved homes in other parts of the country, where beds have been reserved to avoid long periods of waiting for admission. Arrangements have been made with many nursing associations, so that on the recommendation of a physician, a qualified nurse will visit a family to offer first aid, dressings and elementary medical attention. Orthopedic treatment is provided at the Edgar Allen Institute, and during the operation of the scheme our contributors have made 162,025 visits to this unique institution for every type of electrical massage and bath treatment. By arrangement with Boards of Guardians, beds may be obtained in Union Hospitals for urgent cases when none are available immediately in a Voluntary Hospital. An ambulance service provided by the Joint Hospitals' Council, is available without cost to contributors in the wide area served by the hospital—two thousands patients have been transported during the past three months—and travelling costs are remitted to contributors and their families who require hospital or out-patient treatment and are unable to meet that extra expense. Special grants are available for ex-service men, and for the purchase of surgical appliances, and a library service has been established in cooperation with the Red Cross.

The resident population of the hospitals—physicians, nurses and patients—is more than 1,300. Each month more than 1,000 new in-patients are admitted. Last year the hospitals cared for 3,586 needy persons too poor to join any contributory scheme or to pay anything toward their maintenance, at a cost of £30,000 which is a fair and right charge on the contributory scheme. The total of new out-patients last year was well over 100,000. New individual casualties amounted to 3,247 a month, and the attendance of patients total 1,235 a day. During the operation of the scheme the debt has been reduced, three wards with sixty-six additional beds have been reopened, a nurses' hotel acquired, a modern X-ray plant erected, a new wing, housing an ear, nose and throat department and thirty additional beds is almost complete, while twenty-five more beds are being added to the balconies at the Royal Infirmary. A plan now is under way to obtain the consent of the Boards of Management to transfer the hospitals, one by one, as funds and opprotunities permit, to a private park of 120 acres, twelve minutes by motor ambulance from the center of the city, which has been pronounced suitable for hospital extension.

Yet Sheffield knows that it is a waste of skill and money to continue forever to cure diseases which are preventable, and that prevention is better than cure. We are endeavoring to arouse a health conscience, and a health habit, to lessen the sickness and incapacity which steals nineteen and a half million weeks of work from our insured population, a loss equal to the whole year's work of 375,000 citizens. Many lines of preventive health work are carried on in Sheffield by the various authorities, municipal, educational, social. During the past winter the Joint Hospitals' Council arranged twenty lectures which were attended by fully 20,000 people. Nine of the lectures were given by the most eminent health authorities in the country, whose audiences averaged 1,700 in the city's largest hall. It is better to erect a sound fence at the top of the cliff than to provide even the most modern ambulance at the bottom.

S. R. LAMB

The Boston Health League

IN THE SURVEY of February 4, 1922, Curtis Lakeman told of Three City Health Federations; Cleveland, Cincinnati and Boston. The outgrowth of a conference of health agencies held in 1919, the Boston Health League at that time included twenty-five well-established health organizations, which had pooled their working resources of nurses and field service for the development of a common program, at first localized in a trial area in East Boston.

> Inductive method is written all over the beginnings of the Boston Health League [Mr. Lakeman declared] and its feet are on the ground. . . . Turning, with that eagerness that it pleases us to think of as typically American, to the nearest job to be done, filling in the first gaps that show up when the spy glass is focussed on the field, . . . attacking the possible first . . . the Boston League starts from the particular and moves toward the ideal and the general, without waiting to set up a complete and logically perfect plan, that might or might not get anywhere.

Where, after almost three years, has the inductive method carried the league? What are the actual steps taken by this one city in pulling together its health resources to work toward a common end?

Briefly, quoting from the last report of the League's executive secretary, Horace Morison, the development of the Boston Health League has taken the following lines:

> First, a period of voluntary activity sounding the sentiment of the various public health agencies towards a federation and leading to the signing of articles of agreement by sixteen agencies. Second, a period which covers the greater part of the Red Cross appropriation and in which the league with a staff and officers enters the field of public health and in a representative district makes a thorough study of the work of the existing agencies, to determine what the public health needs are, how they are being met, and to assist the agencies in adjusting their work to meet the needs. In this period the Boston Health League has not confined its work to East Boston, but has stood ready at all times to promote coordination of sound public health activities in every part of the city. The league has advocated consistently an intelligent and sincere support of the public agencies. Third, a more difficult period which is marked by a desire on the part of the member agencies to make the meetings of the league serve as a forum for the discussion of plans and policies in relation to a joint health program—the intention being not to discuss agencies but the various phases of public health and the relation of the agencies thereto. In this phase the health league has gone on record—
>
> a. To promote extension of the work of the Health Department along preventive lines.
>
> b. To secure coordination and development of program between the agencies concerned.

Mr. Morison emphasizes the value to the league of its "study district." This is the only one of the large city federations which has concentrated on a study district. It is of great advantage in discussing any part of a city-wide program to have exact knowledge of one section.

THERE is a temptation to dwell upon particular phases of the activities of the league, such as The Boston Health Show, remarkable chiefly in that true coordination of ideas was the motive on which it was conducted, no one agency exhibiting by or for herself, but only as part of a comprehensive plan having "prevention" as its central idea. But it is not so much by its specific and local accomplishments that the "natural history" of the league, as Dr. Emerson

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calls it, has been written. Rather it is written through those progressive movements in the community which have come about because the spirit of the league is a strong, vital and sympathetic outgrowth of a coordination of agencies in deed and not only in name. To the writer the following are the truly significant developments of the Boston Health League:

1. The health centre development.
2. An important amalgamation of private health associations.
3. The city assumes control of child hygiene work.
4. The health league becomes the health section of the Council of Social Agencies.
5. The unanimous election of an officer of the Department of Health as executive secretary of the health league. He is also director of the Boston health centers.

Early in the year 1922 the trustees of the George Robert White Fund announced their intention of building two health units for the city of Boston. Others are to follow. It is the policy of the health commissioner to invite private health agencies to occupy quarters in these centers. Already at the Municipal Health Center on Blossom Street the closest inter-play of all local health activities is in operation. Here is a local neighborhood conference of thirty-six agencies, a medical advisory committee of twelve doctors, and an advisory committee to the director of the health unit brings all the workers into a common health program. Dr. Charles F. Wilinsky has been director of the Blossom Street Health Center since its organization in 1915.

In October, 1922, the Community Health Association was formed by uniting the Instructive District Nursing Association, which had, with Simmons College, joint control of the School for Public Health Nursing, and which was at that time thirty-six years old, with the Baby Hygiene Association, which included the Dietetic Bureau, and was fifteen years old. It is impossible to give the details of the results of this amalgamation here, but its success may be measured in part by the fact that under its operation 20 per cent more persons were served by the same number of field workers than when the associations were under separate control.

When a City Health Department budget is somewhat over $500,000 (exclusive of hospitals) and a voluntary health agency in the same city carries a budget of over $400,000, several pertinent questions insistently arise. There is irritation in the mind of the average man or woman who pays taxes to make up the one sum and is constantly solicited to give generously towards the other. Irritation is increased when the voluntary health agency is only one of some 250 social agencies, most of them essential to the success of both public and private health work in families.

Some such thoughts as these have been occupying our minds since the Community Health Association has proved itself capable of carrying forward a family health program so much more extensive and effective than before the amalgamation. On September 1, 1924, therefore, the Department of Health assumed a large part of the educational work for the health of babies and will, at its convenience, take over the remainder of the child hygiene program. The new nursing personnel necessary to do this, so far as Civil Service requirements permit, is being made up by the Health Commission from the public health nurses released by the Community Health Association.

Amalgamation went one step further when the health league became the health section of the Council of Social Agencies. This move assures the constituent agencies of an informed and experienced body to administer the funds from a community chest, should the chest be introduced into Boston.

In any federation of organizations the true responsibility for success must rest with the executive secretary. In the person of this officer of the league, all the health agencies in Boston had an individual at their service, who was concerned equally with the interests of each and particularly with the welfare of the people for whose service each agency was created.

In Horace Morison, Boston has had a secretary unusually fitted to achieve the remarkable success that we believe has been his. With the end of the first two years of the league's existence, Mr. Morison was obliged by personal considerations to assume a less active part in its operations. He became chairman of the executive committee, an important but less exacting position. In his place it was unanimously voted to appoint Dr. Charles F. Wilinsky. Since his position as director of health centers in the Department of Health permitted him to give the requisite time to these new duties, the commissioner of health, who, it will be remembered, is president of the Boston Health League, gladly consented to his accepting the appointment, bringing official and non-official agencies into still closer working array.

Our developments have been quite unexpected, by ourselves certainly. There has been nothing cut and dried about any of them, nor has it ever been a purpose of the league to make an ideal demonstration of existing services. We needed greatly to understand one another better, a result which has been achieved to a great degree.

Has this effort been worth while? We think it has. When on January 1, 1924, the $30,000 appropriated by the Red Cross was spent, we unanimously voted to "continue as a separate body ready to finance the expenses of a small staff for the coming twelve months." At the time this vote was passed the health commissioner declared himself unwilling to consider getting on without the league and emphasized his belief in its value by contributing then and there a very generous check towards the expenses of the coming year.

So much for the "internal" evidence of its value. For external evidence we may turn to the opinion of Dr. Allan McLaughlin and Dr. Livingston Farrand, expressed at the annual meetings of the league in 1923 and 1924.

> Most complete and comprehensive in its organization is the Boston Health League [says Dr. McLaughlin.] It seems like the fulfillment of a dream which ten years ago did not seem possible. It is inspiring to see all the unofficial agencies in the area united in one common effort under the duly constituted official authority. It is no less inspiring to see a health commissioner who is not a policeman but a statesman eager to utilize the help of the unofficial agencies and to furnish the necessary leadership for keeping them together.

Dr. Farrand, pointing out that the aim of any private health organization ought to be "to put itself out of business, to make itself unnecessary," though "it is still necessary to have private health organization until finally health departments have the backing of educated public sentiment and have been given the means to carry through this whole effort," adds that "it is a great advance to make the effort consciously and gradually to associate official guidance, to

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rely upon official responsibility for all community health activities." He concludes, "You here in this health league have demonstrated the true method of dealing with the complex and confused situation of an American municipality . . . coordinating, bringing together and then expressing in actual work . . . the true application of modern public health knowledge of preventive medicine."

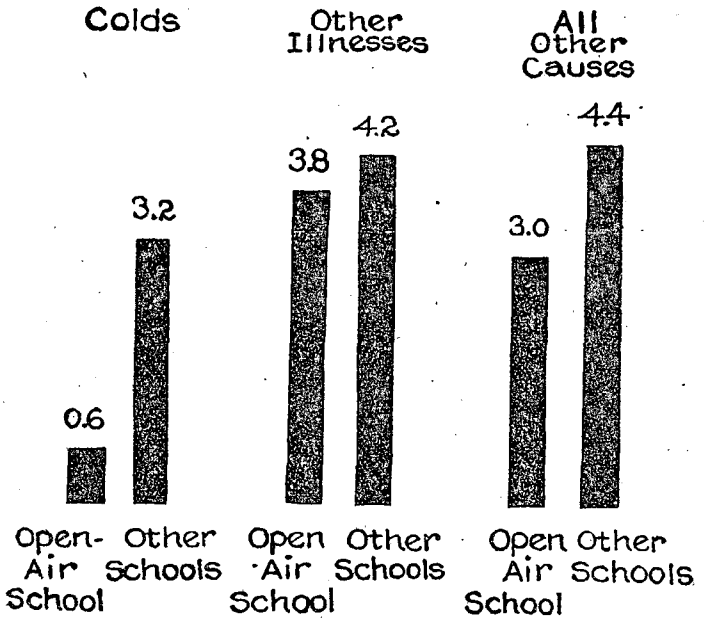
With the further development of the White Fund health centers, and with an executive secretary who also directs these centers, we hope for still further and fuller understanding.

MARY BEARD, R. N.

Keep the Windows Open

WITH the advent of sharp weather and furnace heat in early November there comes a sudden rise in the number of children kept home from school because of colds, according to a study of absenteeism in the third grades of certain public schools of Washington, D. C., conducted through the last school year by the District of Columbia Public School Association and summarized in a recent issue of Public Health Reports. A second wave of colds came with the severe weather in January. Nearly 40 per cent of all absences among the 500 children studied were due to colds and other respiratory affections; the common cold alone is far ahead in the causes of absence, itself responsible for 27.7 per cent. Weather, truancy, religious holidays, family mishaps, the lack of shoes, and all other causes lumped together accounted for 30 per cent.

Comparison of the children in the one open-window school, selected because they were physically handicapped, undernourished, anemic, seems to point a clear moral. These children, physically below par, lost on an average only six-tenths of a day during the school year because of colds, while the rate for the regular schools varied from one to four and one-half days per child per year, averaging 3.2 days. Despite the poor health which is their reason for being there and the large amount of time spent by the open-air children in craft work, they passed the regular school examinations better and more uniformly than the other children of their ages and grades. The committee in charge of the study, under the chairmanship of Louise Taylor-Jones, M.D. concludes that medical problems, many of them arising from preventable causes, such as toothache, earache, eye-strain and resulting headache, digestive upsets, and the like, cause the overwhelming majority of absence of among these children, with the common cold as the chief offender, and declare:



"The apparent benefit to children, both physically and mentally, from schools of the open-window plan would indicate the desirability of extending this system. It would involve some additional appropriations for cots and blankets for the rest period and for extra food."

Mother's Milk

Breast-feeding is a universal medical prescription. On this alone may depend baby's life. With the resources of a great city to draw upon, the Children's Welfare Federation of New York City, clearing house of two hundred and thirty-five children's organizations, evolved a dependable source of supply.

WHEN the Children's Welfare Federation opened its first unit for the collection and distribution of mother's milk in October 1921, it was in response to a demand from individuals, hospitals and institutions for some agency to secure and distribute breast milk continuously for critical cases. Since the use of wet nurses is unsatisfactory in many cases, and the very lives of premature, motherless or very sick babies often depend upon this one food, there had long been a need for some organized supply.

There was little precedent to work upon, and matters of technique and procedure had to be developed from the ground up. With Dr. Henry Dwight Chapin as chairman, the committee of the Children's Welfare Federation responsible for developing a program, studied the experiment in the collection and distribution of mother's milk which was started in 1910 in Boston. In New York similar work was begun about eleven years ago by Dr. B. Raymond Hoobler in cooperation with the social service department of Bellevue Hospital. Dr. Hoobler demonstrated that mothers can be found who will be perfectly willing to sell their milk; that some mothers can spare a portion of their milk without detriment to their own babies; that human milk can thus be furnished at a reasonable price and that the collection can be made by existing agencies. The federation, then, opened its first unit in October 1921, in space given by the Bureau of Child Hygiene in one of the baby health stations on the upper East Side. In 1922, however, the unit was moved to a baby health station on the lower East Side where it was found possible to reach more mothers.

The procedure which was worked out slowly and carefully in that first station is being further developed and perfected today by the registered nurse in charge of the bureau for the collection and distribution of mother's milk at the central office of the federation, and by the members of the committee—Dr. Chapin, Dr. Stafford McLean, Dr. Herman Schwarz, Dr. Jules Blumenthal, Dr. Carl Laws and Dr. Charles Herrman. Two new units have been opened this year, one in Brooklyn in May and one in the Bronx in June. There is a matron in charge of each unit, and each matron is in turn responsible to the nurse in charge of the bureau at the federation. Under the original plan the mothers expressed the milk at home and brought it into the units, but this was soon found to be inadvisable

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as the quality of the milk could not always be kept up to standard and as insanitary conditions frequently prevailed in the homes. No milk is now accepted unless it is expressed under the supervision of the matrons in the units. Privacy is maintained for the mother but the supervision of the matron assures that every hygienic precaution is taken and that the mother herself employs the approved method of hand manipulation of the breast.

Only mothers who have more milk than is needed by their own babies are accepted. Their babies must be under the care of a physician and a nurse in the health station and the mother must be recommended by the physician. One of the most interesting phases of the work is the educational work which is done with the mothers. It has been found often that when they first come to the units their own babies have not been thriving as a result of being overfed. The mother is not accepted at the unit if the nurse in the health station reports loss of weight, etc. on the part of her child. The matrons spend a part of each day visiting mothers who have not attended the unit regularly or in looking up new mothers whom they wish to interest.

From October 1921 to the end of July 1924, 2050 quarts, 21½ ounces of milk were collected from 94 mothers. Of this 1981 quarts, 15¼ ounces were sold to institutions, hospitals and private patients; the remainder was given to patients unable to pay. Fifty-nine hospitals and institutions have been supplied with this milk. One hundred and sixty-nine babies were benefited exclusive of those in hospitals and institutions. It is not possible to obtain figures as to the number of children supplied in the latter. Mothers are paid ten cents an ounce for the first five ounces expressed each day and fifteen cents an ounce for every ounce over that. Carfare is paid for any mother who can offer ten ounces or more at one time. The federation usually charges twenty-five cents an ounce for this milk except in the case of persons unable to pay, and people of every nationality and every social class come to buy this life-giving food for their sick or delicate babies. All milk is pooled at each unit and put in large bottles on the ice. It is then ready to be given out upon doctor's orders, which must be received first by the bureau at the federation. Anyone wishing to pasteurize the milk will receive full instructions at the units. A specimen of the milk is analysed once a month in order to make certain that it keeps up to standard.

A short history of all babies to whom this milk is supplied is kept by the federation. In each case it is known why the baby is finally taken off of mother's milk, whether it has been put on formula, dismissed to a wet nurse, etc. One has only to glance over these little histories or to read the expressions of gratitude which come from parents whose babies have weathered severe illnesses with the help of this food, to realize that children's lives are daily being saved by the work of the mother's milk bureau.

SARAH BLACKWELL GOBER

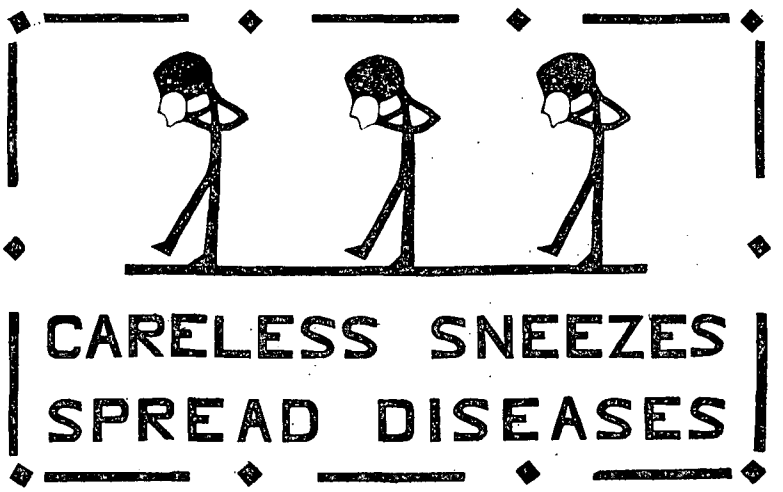
MONTANA, following a survey of her school children, conducted by the United States Public Health Service, is among the most recent states to find evidence that simple goiter is a public health problem. Nearly a quarter of the 14,000 children studied were found to be suffering from enlargement of the thyroid gland. As usual, the condition was more prevalent among girls than boys, and found most often in isolated rural districts which relied upon wells and springs for their water supply and did not consume imported vegetables, sea food, etc. School children of Cincinnati, in a similar survey conducted by the United States Public Health Service, the Commissioner of Health and his associates, showed thyroid enlargements in the case of 32.2 per cent and a recommendation was made to the board of health that a constant and definite supply of iodine to each person be insured through the use of iodized table salt.

THAT TUBERCULOSIS should receive treatment at an early state, is demonstrated once again in a study compiled by the Medical Research Council of England, analyzing the histories of 3,400 patients treated by the Frinley Sanitarium from 1905 to 1914. Nearly 80 per cent of the men and 90 per cent of the women diagnosed in the incipient stage were alive at the end of five years; after ten years the survivals were 65 per cent and 85 per cent respectively.

DIABETIC PATIENTS in Seattle, Washington, are the gainers by the recent opening of a cooperative store to sell the foods and instruments necessary to their regime. Space for the store and clerical supervision has been given without cost by the Virginia Mason Hospital, and through an endowment supplied by a group of interested citizens, it will be able to offer its wares at a graduated scale of prices according to the need of the patient: full price, discount, cost, part charity, full charity. The plan of the store was suggested by Dr. Elliott P. Joslin of Boston at a recent lecture in Seattle.

The idea for this poster was taken from the Survey June 15, 1924, page 354.

Made by Minnie Lee Rencher, Ocooe, Fla., a teacher student enrolled in the Health Education Class at the summer school of the University of Florida, at Gainesville.



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EDUCATION

Education and Community Life in Smithdale

AT a crossroads, in a valley worn by a rushing stream through high wooded hills, is the little white schoolhouse of Smithdale. Into this one-room school, shortly after the world war, I brought my ideals and experience of three years as a physical training director. Here I tried to discover how far those ideals were practical in this type of rural school, and how I could follow out in such a school, the law recently passed by the state requiring the teaching of indoor and outdoor games and athletic exercises, and at the same time incorporate some of my ideals of physical education in my teaching.

Since education is closely related to the community in which it functions, and physical education is even more vitally concerned with community welfare, I have studied the backgrounds of Smithdale's school in considerable detail. . . .

CHANGES in population and economic conditions have affected the educational situation and the health of the present day. (When the community was first incorporated, just before the Revolution) the inhabitants were independent and strong, gravely concerned with matters of community welfare and patriotic duty. Some of these men were descendants of the hardy colonial "planters" who had hewn the "cartway" "through an unbroken forest of fifty miles length" and who had valiantly fought in the last French and Indian wars. The act of incorporation of their town invested it "with all the powers, privileges and immunities that towns in this province do and may enjoy." It provided that the inhabitants "shall pay their proportion of all province, county and town charges."

The principle of paying from public funds for things that would benefit the community and state was thus established by the early settlers. . . . History points to the payment in 1775 from appropriations of town meeting for the following public affairs: military training, building the church, the home settlement of the doctor, and the settlement and early salary of the minister; and in 1791, "schooling."

THE pioneer planters found the valley lands sufficient for the supply of their food needs; the forests gave them fuel and building material, and there was plenty of fresh water. They were, moreover, on a main thoroughfare between the frontier settlements and Boston. So long as the period of "household economy" continued, when clothing was homespun and food home-grown, Smithdale maintained its population and its economic self-sufficiency, though the call to western lands took some of the adventurous blood. The invention of the steam engine at first stimulated Smithdale's growth. But when the use of power was centralized in large factories, the death-knell of that economic independence was sounded. The many little individual shops that once dotted the valley and supplied the community's needs are now but traditions. The factory system has taken much of the best blood of the town to the industrial cities, and the community must buy its merchandise from outsiders, and finds large appropriations from the state necessary to maintain its schools and highways.

IN a psychological way the town is not so healthful a place for the young as it was in former times. The industrial cities have drawn away from Smithdale much of the energy that developed its vital community institutions. To the adolescent boy and young man "the place is dead." Feeling the lack of inspiration they tend to drift cityward. . . . (Once, here) were independent men, for in 1787 they sent delegates to the convention at Boston, but voted to disapprove the federal constitution. Their fellowship had lost men and treasure in gaining the nation's liberty, and though they knew "nothing but patriots in Smithdale," they felt the importance of their position and in several cases "decided to show their mind to the General Assembly."

Discipline was stern in the early days, (a stocks was voted in 1779), yet music, inventive genius and professional talent developed from the rugged pioneer stock. "These hills have always re-echoed the sound of merry voices. Inventive genius has had a share. . . . Patents of various inventions have been recorded. We raised a painter also of no little repute. Able divines have here dwelt and labored. . . ." Two Smithdale boys have "graced the bench of New York"; one boy "laid deep the foundations of literary pursuits in raising the first $50,000 of the endowment of Amherst College"; and another "in the mayoralty of New York City and in the Congress of the United States alike, served his age and reflected glory on his native place."

But a subtle change has taken place since those days. The system which has made possible large and relatively cheap production of merchandise, so that, for example, thousands of families may own Ford cars and phonographs, has drained the vitality from such communities as Smithdale.

The rugged country people have fought a losing battle and an accumulation of pessimism has taken the place of the former gaiety of the groups that met in social barn raisings and husking bees. One writer has intimated that there is to be seen here serious degeneration caused by intermarriage and intensification of family traits which is so marked in isolated communities.

The outstanding characteristic of Smithdale is still individual strength born of the freedom of the hills and of the lone competition against economic forces that appear to be overwhelming. Many have a perception of the values of life which make their judgments unusually interesting and

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canny. They are not influenced by the mob psychology of the cities. They see things more nearly as they are, rather than as they are told to see them. As a result, they are often truer to human needs, since artificial civilization has not made them superficial. My own relations with many Smithdale people have assured me of this insight into life. G. Stanley Hall recognizes the importance of this human outlook of rural people, and in his "autobiography" hints at the great part which they who live nearer to nature may play in the regeneration of a nation.

Unfortunately, this native strength and individual wisdom is not being incorporated into the general interests of state and nation. The interests of the "majority" have centered in cities and have appeared prejudicial to the interests of Smithdale. The civil and criminal laws, developed in legislatures and courts, seem to many in Smithdale a little secondary to the individualistic laws of man to man. They are also kindred in spirit to their forefathers who could not live in a king-ridden country, and are therefore naturally antagonistic to the boss-ridden political machine, and to the clever hierarchies of organized selfish intelligence which appear to them to be the order of our boasted civilization. Indeed, they respect more those who are able to take the law into their own hands and do not have to run for a sheriff. Possibly the traditions of Smithdale may augment this attitude, since when laws were made against distilleries, which had always been carried on, one of the occupations of the hills became "moonshine." The position of the village in a corner between two counties made it attractive to that fearless type of man who does not see the reason for conforming to outside laws, yet, strangely enough, makes the product of his stills pure. In fact, the past record of no county court without its quota from Smithdale is one of the community's jokes, as is also the remark of a neighboring villager to the judge when asked what crops were raised in the district: "Two crops, huckleberries in summer and hell in winter."

It appears that the economic revolution, from "domestic occupations" to the "factory system" has caused a wider and wider gulf between city and rural interests, a "social cleavage" which, according to some, is the most serious fact in American life. Individual strength in rural society, being powerless against organized strength in cities and towns, has withdrawn into itself and become cynical and antagonistic.

The lack of ability to cooperate, both within the community and in relation to the outside world, affects every aspect of life and acts as a severe handicap. Family feeling, though tempered with too much common sense to allow feuds, nevertheless was instrumental in breaking up an attempt to form a community club. The last meeting was as wild a free-for-all as the teacher had ever witnessed. The school children express the same feeling in their school quarrels and in their inability to work together.

IN 1921, when I went to Smithdale, it was difficult to find any alleviating bright spots to offset the pessimism. The school superintendent expressed the situation well when she wrote:

> Isolated rural communities educate themselves slowly—or rather adapt themselves slowly to changing conditions and needs. Not until some of our more progressive young people go out into the world and later return with a vision and remain long enough to make the vision a reality are we likely to see our dreams come true.

But I have learned some things and come to some conclusions. The "social gulf" between country and city is due to an economic system that has not given proper recognition to the fact that the "social organism is based on agriculture and agricultural resources made available by industry." Time to play is an economic factor. The loyalty of children to their families which makes them wish to "get home to help mother with the chores" is a subtle and sacred thing. The stooped shoulders of the child-laborer need straightening and the fagged spirits of the rural child need joy and incentive to live more fully, but there is an economic factor behind these conditions. These are all matters for economists and research workers in general education and sociology to cope with.

I believe that the economic interests of the parents should be taken into consideration, their cooperation secured, if possible, and á compromise between economic and educational interests reached. I also believe that if the state is to require the attendance of boys and girls until they are fourteen, sixteen or eighteen years old it should view critically the fitness of the school to be the environment of their lives during this socially critical period, and be careful lest it provide a prison for the innocent, or train them to idle dreaming or economically impossible careers. An educational system which antagonizes local interests through lack of adaptation to real needs is apt to develop anti-social citizens who may cause the state great expense. Certain social workers and some residents of Smithdale alike think that there may be a correlation between the increase of adolescent insanity and an unwise educational system.

If a community could save all it is now spending on unnecessary philanthropic work and all it is now losing through the cost of preventable disease, social ineptitude and accidents due to lack of knowledge of mechanical forces, it would have enough funds to build a community school which, properly managed in a democratic manner, would be a profitable investment for a happy healthful rural life.

ESTHER WATSON TIPPLE

A New Community School

ON September 25, Manumit, a new community school "primarily for the children of workers" was opened at Pawling, Dutchess County, N. Y. Shortly before the opening of the school, a conference of about fifty progressive labor leaders and liberal educators was held at the school, ending in the formation of a permanent body of educators and labor leaders which will assume responsibility for the social and educational policies of the new enterprise.

During the conference, a statement of the hopes and intentions of the faculty was read by one of their number. The following passages from that paper, which represented the "gist of many absorbing fireside discussions" will give some notion of the spirit in which the school begins:

> Of course, the heart and marrow of a school like ours is the community life. The community school is our way of affirming our deep belief in Dewey's maxim that education comes through life. Community life itself is our definition of that freedom and responsibility in which every educational democrat believes. The community life of our school is the socialized incarnation of our belief in industrial democracy. It is

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our act of faith in the labor movement and in that good life, that rich and noble life for all, which the labor movement is going to bring in.

All self-governing schools of course, in themselves, constitute projects. But in such a community school as ours where the children live twenty-four hours a day, the school itself is supremely the durable and embracing project of which all other projects we may be able to carry out here will be natural parts.

And in several ways we think a community school is certain to take a few of the usual anxieties of teaching off our hands. For instance, if in some of the work one of the children should pursue for a long time a purely individual interest—such as making a box exclusively to hold his own clothes—still the social need for him to cooperate with his group in the kitchen, in the field or the milking shed, will help immensely to right the balance and by so doing leave it safe for that absorbing, perhaps releasing, individual interest to take its own gait. Such work, which every one can see must be done promptly and regularly will steadily help him to grow responsible and reliable. Many such needs, which in a day school require ingenious devices by the teacher, will be met perfectly naturally in a school which is built around a community life. That it really has these results all of us who have lived in a community school can say from experience as well as from theory.

The children, who range from nine to fourteen years old, and who, in the public schools, would be graded from the fourth grade through the first year of high school, seem likely to fall into about five groups for most of their work. The teachers each expect to hold one or two conferences a week with these groups of children; each of us expects to collaborate with the children in mapping out the research and other projects they undertake. We expect each a sort of workshop where we can assemble our materials and meet the children and advise them whenever they want our assistance. Our curriculum presents itself as five fields for exploration and discovery.

The library will be the English work-shop—with two or three shelves in particular where the children can keep the books they choose and recommend to each other as specially good reading—two or three portfolios lying on the library table in which the editors of our magazine can collect and sort the stories or poems the children submit for the paper; and the beginnings of an anthology of poems to be chosen entirely by children under eighteen, illustrated by them and edited by them, with a section, of course, of poems written entirely by persons under eighteen. . . .

The workshop of history and other social sciences: a workshop full of books and papers, but also full of models, in all sorts of materials, of architecture, Egyptian gates and halls of columns, Chinese pagodas and Greek temples, mediaeval churches and castles. . . .

The arts and crafts workshop—but how shall we teachers safeguard from neglecting other work to go there to feast our eyes and fingers upon the paints, the looms, the carpenter tools and the children satisfying their ardor for making. . . .

In the mathematics shop there will be something to draw them away. . . . I mean hints and glimpses of the unveiling of the spirit of mathematics, a thing that can greatly expand the power and clearness of the mind. This is something I know nothing of, except a glimpse of light shining on me late in life out of a scarcely opened door. . . .

There are moods when it seems as if all our indoor things and customs are but toys and games . . . at such times the huge workshop of the outdoors seems the only real—the only grown-up thing. We are going to have a noble outdoor field at once for practical work and for natural science—for the practice and knowledge with which we hope children are here to be equipped, for the body of arts called farming and for the sense of the vastness of natural science and especially of that inclusive biology of which history itself has been said to be only a branch. . . .

You mustn't think we do not realize the truth of Dostoievsky's saying that the love of humanity in dreams is ideally calm and beautiful, while the love of humanity in action is full of audacity and blunders. All that we can do, of course, is to arrange our school affairs, with the advice and assistance of our partners, the children, as nearly as we can to resemble that rich and fruitful freedom in which and for which we want to labor, and to teach the children, and to let them teach each other, and be taught ourselves.

What's an Adjustment Room?

THE Los Angeles adjustment rooms constitute a device for the accomplishment of the following purposes:

1. A searching examination of the real abilities of school pupils in the grades in academic lines.

2. A mind building course of instruction in the academic abilities such that character qualities may be brought under control and become ideals in the pupils.

3. A place for the training of teachers in the observation, study and correction of weak abilities and the strengthening of stronger abilities as shown in school materials.

4. An intensive study of portions of the curriculum suitable for instruction, especially such as have been found of unusual difficulty to pupils.

Arthur H. Sunderland writes of the adjustment rooms and their purpose in the Bulletin of the Southern California Society for Mental Hygiene. To quote in part:

Examination of Pupils. How often does one hear from the parent that this particular child could have done much better on the test; that the questions are catch questions; that the test is a stunt, etc. And since the pupils are in school, are failing or do not seem to fit well in their present places, it appears that an observation room in which pupils may work under a carefully controlled set of conditons may perhaps obviate some criticisms, besides adding some advantages. The pupil may become accustomed to the idea of showing the best he can do.

Twenty-one mental mechanisms operating on school subject matter, which is constantly changing, are under examination. They are the mechanisms which have been judged to be most nearly responsible for success or failure in studies. Each pupil is "placed" on work which he can do successfully in each of twenty-one types. He is rarely at the same level of development in them. Self test and self practice at easy work leads to harder tasks and during this increase in the abilities a careful record is kept of the progress and the types of difficulty which this pupil shows in each of the operations. The work has not been successful as yet with children definitely feeble-minded, but has proven that numbers of children who were believed to be feeble-minded were not actually so. The plan of work has also been successful with a number of psychopathic and delinquent types of children.

The aim of the rooms on the instruction side has been to provide a sufficient content and subject matter to challenge the fullest exercise of the abilites which are necessary to success in these lines. The aim of education has been stated as "the development in the pupil of a control by himself of his own abilities proven by his exercise of those abilities in the control and solution of the problems he meets. This definition, however, leaves out of account that the pupil may acquire ideals and purposes which are undesirable from a social viewpoint. It is therefore highly important to give especial emphasis to the significance of what is learned, and the development of the "sense of values." Instead, then, of drill forced upon a pupil, or definite routine stunts which must be performed, it is clear that pupils must be "motivated" by increasing success and the guidance of a teacher to continue to prove themselves able to control their respective futures.

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It is necessary also to note that this control occurs first in small matters and rises but gradually to things of larger import. Character undoubtedly is reflected and developed in the process. Stability, judgment, imagination, control, determination, persistence and joy in accomplishment find in these rooms unusual opportunity for full expression.

Thinking About Education

FOLLOW here some samples of the ways in which the so-called "thinking" about our educational problems is being carried on. Sample No. 1:

In a presumably democratic republic such as our country is, the importance of securing habits and attitudes of obedience to the social control of the community during the period of schooling can hardly be overestimated. The teacher, the principal and the superintendent of schools are the persons who embody mainly this social control so far as the children of school age are concerned. They are entitled, in order to carry out effectively the work they do, to insist upon the same degree of respect and obedience as the state police in the rural districts insist upon from the population as a whole. (Stephen G. Rich, in the Educational Review)

We stop only to ask why teachers, etc. should not receive the same sort of respect and obedience which the city policeman receives from the populace of the city. May it be because city dwellers have got beyond the stage of "respect and obedience"? Sample No. 2:

One of the greatest difficulties, today, of the employer is to secure men who know their trades. There are many young men who have a smattering of information regarding some line of work and still are not practical workmen in any line. These men in making application for work will state that they can do "anything." When closely questioned they usually have to admit that there is nothing that they can really do well. This is wholly due to the fact that they have left school and taken up the first job which offered itself without any view to preparation of fitness. (Poughkeepsie Star)

The question might be asked, of course, as to how long a young man would have to stay in school in order to become proficient in some trade. But the question might prove embarassing.

IN contrast with this sort of "thinking" the following statement from the annual report of George B. Masslich, superintendent of the Chicago and Cook County School for Boys, is greatly reassuring:

Military training has often been suggested as a means of governing the boys but it would seem that the disadvantages far outweigh the advantages, in that it seeks blind obedience rather than individual initiative. In his short stay here a boy's informal conduct toward employes and school mates brings to light the weak and strong traits of character and temperament that determine his chances of returning as a more law abiding individual to the society from which he came. To the boy who has smoked cigarettes for years their prohibition calls forth and demonstrates his will power. The bully thinks to continue his tactics, the shirker to escape work by doing it poorly, the mentally lazy to hang back in the class room; but the constant supervision of family instructors and teachers makes it less easy than formerly, with the result that practically every boy exerts an effort, greater or less, to conform to a more social procedure. The extent of this effort shows whether or not he is profiting by his stay and whether or not he should be returned to home on parole. It can be truthfully said that these boys as a group are anti-social. Not a few have found their homes intolerable and have run away or staid away. Wanderlust, step-parents, poverty, laziness, inefficient parental care, misuse of leisure time, and the other well known elements have entered into the situation—the simple fact standing out that these boys did not succeed at home. Some have made a failure of school, as evidenced by the fact that there is considerable retardation. Perhaps a fourth are mentally subnormal; a few have come from communities that did not enforce the compulsory school attendance law; but the large remainder have disliked school and have been successful in escaping it. . . .

It is unfortunate that legitimate opportunities for exploration and discovery seem so scarce. When the time shall come that the school budget of the nation shall approach the war budget it may be possible to put into the elementary schools those opportunities for self-expression and development that many boys need and fail to find in their play and school environment. There is a measure of truth in the oft quoted statement that a boy needs to get into trouble before the school will give him its best.

THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, Knights of the Ku Klux Klan, for the Realm of Texas, sent out in a recent "release" the following statement as "one of the many reasons" why the organization is needed in American life: "The prime purpose of this great Order is to develop character." We have never lived in a community where the character of its citizenship as a whole was what it should be. We believe that the development of real manly character is a vital need in every community. We know hundreds of men in the Klan whose characters have been materially and substantially improved through the influence, environment and teachings of the Klan. We also believe that all real Klansmen have a more profound sense of honor, higher ideals of morality, a keener appreciation of Christianity, a greater respect for law and constituted authority, and a broader vision of the duties of citizenship than they had before they became Klansmen. The Klan by its high ideals, noble sentiments and sacred principles inculcates and cultivates a manly desire to be better, cleaner men; morally, mentally, physically and spiritually. The citizens of every community, and especially the young men, need just such moral, spiritual and patriotic training, environments and influence as the Klan affords. It is a great character builder because of its high ideals, noble purposes and sacred sentiments. Every Klansman, by the presence of the cross, is constantly reminded that he has accepted Christ as his criterion of character and the Twelfth Chapter of Romans as his Law and Life." For some reason, the public reputation of the Klan does not seem to have been developed out of these professions of their noble purposes.

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR CHILD DEVELOPMENT, an association of labor men and women, educators and parents, has been organized in New York City. Its purpose is to develop, within the general field of interest of labor, groups of boys and girls, after the fashion of the Boy Scouts and the Girl Scouts, but with programs that seem to the leaders more in keeping with the present social and industrial aspirations of humanity. A summer camp for children will be established at Pawling, N. Y., which will be open through July and August. Groups of boys and girls organized under the new plan are already being formed in connection with the Labor Temple, Walden School, Brownsville Labor Lyceum, Harlem Educational Center, and at several other centers. The organization will eventually be national in scope but experience will be sought in dealing with problems on a limited scale before branching out too widely into the country at large. The address of the organization is 70 Fifth Avenue.

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

Is Your Town Fit for a Child?

A robust program of community care to prevent delinquency

Here is no easy panacea for child delinquency—but a rounded statement of what a city or village can do to insure its children an abundant and wholesome life, to protect them from obvious dangers, and to prepare them for a normal share in the common enterprise of living. It follows Dr. Van Waters' program for the treatment of delinquency, published in the September Midmonthly; the more the purposes here set forth are realized, the less need there will be for "treatment." This too, is taken from Dr. Van Waters' book, Youth and Conflict, published this month.

THE most important work of the community with reference to juvenile delinquency should be to prevent it. For the elements of a specific community program for prevention the following may be suggested:

A school department bureau or conference for treatment of truancy, misconduct and behavior maladjustments developing in school life. This bureau should be in charge of a social worker who has had training and experience in treating juvenile delinquency in light of modern methods. Truancy officers, compulsory education workers, and the administration of special schools should be controlled through this source, which should have access to expert medical, psychological and psychiatric services. The school should assume responsibility for a large part of the social conduct of its pupils; for example, vice-principals of girls in high schools of Rochester, New York, recently undertook to chaperone school girls who had been permitted by parents to attend public dance halls. The visiting teacher, the plastic curriculum, use of the project method, proper placement of children in school work, a growing respect for the child's personality, vocational guidance, are all needed factors in the social program of the school.

Development in school of a sex hygiene program, is an educational problem that can no longer be denied. The modern child is in a blind fog of misinformation and superstition. He is ignorant of fit names for the parts of the body, and the process of reproduction. He has no way of asking for clean information because he is not in possession of tools, the right words to ask. He does not hear the sex stories of the Bible. He must gain everything illicitly. He is without vocabulary, or clean knowledge. Certain facts may be taught him at home, but the task of acquiring a rational attitude toward sex must largely be fulfilled by the school. Much waste of energy could thus be avoided. As to what such a social hygiene program should include there is difference of opinion.

The concept of family formation should be acquired in school. Sex instruction in the past has been based largely on requirements of individual virility, virtue and happiness. The youth is not taught the principles of forming a family; how much it costs, first and last, what are its social advantages and disadvantages, what is expected of a family in modern civilization, what are the qualities of a good father, mother, brother, sister, or the indispensable attributes of a bachelor uncle; all these family matters could be profitably discussed in the junior high schools, or wherever adolescents congregate. They are far more likely to be interested now than at some later time. This safety-valve of vigorous, critical discussion would ease some of the tension and irritation of the average boy and girl toward his or her own family.

A direct attack upon the problem of training boys and girls of school age to understand infancy and childhood has been made by the Merrill-Palmer experiment in Detroit, under the leadership of Helen Thompson Wooley. Observing that behavior-patterns of the child are pretty well set by the time of school entrance, Dr. Wooley has organized a nursery school where actual training in handling problems of tiny children is given young students. Youth is the golden period for education in parenthood; afterwards it is too late, and before that time the egotisms of childhood prevent. A plan whereby young girls and boys can see something beyond themselves, can be lifted to an objective level in study of human emotions is one of the surest and best ways, not only to prevent delinquency in the present generation, but to remove the soil of parental misunderstanding in which it flourishes. Dr. Wooley's experiment should be extended to other communities as rapidly as trained leadership can be secured.

AS part of the public system (high schools, night classes and state universities) there should be well rounded provision for training social workers. This should be a recognized vocation for which preparation may begin early in school life. Technical and professional schools for social workers would not be supplanted by these public school courses. The chief benefit derived would be an enlightened community understanding of problems of social work, which in turn would gain enormously from democratic infiltration.

The larger program for community education for problems of delinquency and social work would still have to be left to special groups. While all that increases knowledge of human nature and respect for personality will tend to prevent delinquency, there are specific areas of misinformation that will have to be combatted. Delinquency as a community product and a community responsibility must be faced squarely. Just as we are no longer indifferent if the

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child next do our own has diphtheria, so we must understand that to save any special class of children from delinquency, all must be saved.

Community control of public opinion through press, clubs, social agencies and business organizations should seek to restrain profiteers in the faults of youth. Money making, or gaining personal advantage by the delinquency of juveniles should be under the ban of public disapproval. Only in this way can seemingly respectable lures for pleasure-loving young people be wiped out.

Community education of well meaning adults who lack "common sense" is necessary. Those who "pick up" boys and girls at night, house them, give rides and shelter, money and meals, directly encourage delinquency. Their activity is usually sentimental; they feel a glow of pride that they have "done a kid a good turn"; they listen uncritically to stories of abuse and misunderstanding, are too ready to believe ill of parents, schools, public officials; after lavishing "sympathy" on the young adventurer, they turn him out of doors, or condemn him as a "fraud" in court. Quite otherwise is that searching spirit of responsibility which would accompany a child to his home, learn the facts, and apply skill and knowledge in solving the difficulty; if it exists.

Adults who permit their houses or rooms to be used by unchaperoned boys and girls for rendezvous, or lend their automobiles promiscuously, or who are careless with valuable personal property are undoubtedly not safeguarding the badly taught youth of today. Too great a strain should not be placed by the neighborhood on the discretion of children where parental control has already been weakened.

The church as a guiding force in the life of youth should be the chief asset in a community program to prevent delinquency. In many places it will form and direct a large part of the social life of the individual. If the church could forget its dissensions and concentrate on the spiritual welfare of the child, much that now passes for social work would be unnecessary. For the church to imitate economic or military groups in rivalry for membership, or to seek competition with amusements that enervate youth, is no substitute for its true function of supplying ethical and religious guidance to youth.

The community which is kindest to children goes on about its own affairs with vigor. A multitude of agencies for child welfare, playgrounds, day nurseries, protective societies, and censorships does not of itself indicate a happier or healthier childhood. Children thrive most where they are part of a busy community, interested in worth-while activities. They need to be let alone; they love to observe and imitate skilled adults at their tasks. A neighborhood that loves children does not herd them all together on some public lot, but absorbs them into its life stream. The farm-life of early New England, the "conquest of the West" furnished children the vigorous participation in community affairs which they require. Whether Boy Scouts and Camp Fire Girls can succeed in creating artificial substitutes remains to be seen. Before adults can hope to reap a harvest of good children from such enterprises, they must devise natural ways of using their energy; the essential thing is recognition of mutual dependence of child and adult, the necessity of *living together.* If old men group themselves exclusively together we have what Kempf attributes to arteriosclerosis; war, secret diplomacy, economic tyranny; if children congregate we have delinquency. No age-group can isolate itself without affectation or fanaticism. Organizations that leave the child out are useful for certain ends, but they tend to sterility. They are biologically unsound.

The social worker ought to see the problem very clearly; of far more importance than social agencies and organizations to care for special handicapped groups in the community is the fostering of a healthy community spirit in which fathers, mothers and children share in work, recreation and neighborhood projects. The modern phenomenon of groups of women playing bridge and mah jongg while groups of boys and girls have "petting parties," or expeditions to steal automobiles, and groups of men are organizing a new club, secret society, or community drive, is definitely related to the problem of juvenile delinquency.

When it is time for the community to organize special protective societies for children, the disease is already present, and the social worker's task is to guide these enterprises into constructive channels.

In every community there should be some specific organization or committee to insure a clean press. A civic body composed of business men and women, the larger advertisers, newspaper publishers, a few socially minded parents, and social workers might meet together to form a program. The goal should be formation of public opinion and newspaper policy that would keep the press free of lurid stories of crime, sex delinquencies, divorce and personal scandal. There should be no attempt at *censorship.* Papers would print these same items of fact as news, but deliberate appeal to lust, blood, robbery and other anti-social impulses would not be so constantly stressed.

Business men and women should be led to form groups for the moral safe-guarding of youth in industry. Commercial exploitation of youth's search for pleasure and excitement, unscrupulous hotels, places of amusement and the like, the habit of "kidding" young people employed in public service enterprises, lack of protecting the morals of adolescents as we now protect the safety of infants, all this can be controlled best by leaders of industry in the community. Fraternal and economic organizations already show signs of awakened interest in boys and girls. Social workers should seize this opportunity for constructive protective measures for childhood.

All clubs and social organizations should give a definite place in their programs to fostering social welfare. Upon them will fall, in communities where social work is pioneering, the opportunity to create public opinion, and to foster enterprises already begun. While they do best when they devote their energies to some one movement, such as mental hygiene, travelers' aid, or Americanization, or deal with one group of clients, such as the wayward girl or boy, the special danger to be combatted is treatment of the handicapped individual without reference to the family which produced him. If it be borne in mind that social work deals with creation and fostering of social relationship, and that the actual conduct of treatment should be directed by a well-trained, recognized social worker, clubs can be a vast constructive force in our American communities.

In each community there should be a child-placing agency which controls the home finding and supervision of all young children who are in need of homes other than the parental one. Careless child placing is responsible for misery and delinquency to such a wide-spread extent, that no estimate is likely to tell the full tale. No community which places

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its children casually or adopts them indiscriminately can have a good conscience when its youth becomes delinquent.

The mental hygiene movement should be established in the community that seeks to prevent delinquency, or to deal with disordered behavior.

Protective groups should be organized to care for special types of handicapped persons, the travelers' aid societies, juvenile protective associations, are of the greatest importance in a community program, and no constructive or preventive work on a comprehensive scale can be undertaken without them.

No large community program can do effective work without a social service exchange, a non-political system of administering relief, and a loyal oooperative federation of social workers. The means of financing social work of the community must be worked out in each location. Of special value will be formation of qualified social workers into a professional group, such as the American Medical Association for physicians, or American Bar Association for lawyers. The American Association of Social Workers has local groups in a number of communities.

Each community should formulate some plan for professional training of social workers. Local persons could be sent to the great schools of social work in New York, Boston, Chicago, Philadelphia and elsewhere. If necessary, several social agencies could combine and send one member for the purpose of learning adequate record keeping, or investigations, or social treatment, or whatever is most lacking in the social resource of the community. State universities and colleges are gradually establishing schools or departments of social work. No community can afford to blunder along with make-shift social workers, any more than it can employ street sweepers to build the bridges on which lives depend.

Training of social workers tends to develop stability of personnel. Changing personnel works hardships in treatment of juvenile delinquency where so much depends on establishing permanent social relationships. Continuity of treatment is desirable. Change, flux, drift, broken faith, unkept promises, situations that are unstable are agony to children whose own homes are so changing. When social workers can send their own roots deep into the soil of their chosen community, much can be accomplished.

Any community which desires to prevent delinquency must provide recreation facilities for all the boys and girls. Camp, playgrounds, winter sports and club rooms, handcraft classes, drama leagues, fire-side industries, swimming pools, gymnasia, nature clubs, all these and many more are needful in creating outlets for youth's leisure time. There should be no special trust in apparatus and organization; the main thing is *will to play* on the part of the community as expressed in a few vigorous personalities gifted in getting along with children.

THERE will be no serious blunders committed if in a community program a few clear, simple things are held constantly in view. There should be honesty and simplicity of approach. If a community lacks a given social device, it should not be content with any group of persons who apply some new label to their activities and proclaim: "Lo, here we have it!" Patient, enlightened construction is the only thing that counts. The child, at home, at school, in industry, on the streets, in play, in court, police department, or social agency should stand out as the central theme of interest and love.

No community program can run of itself. Nothing can endure, no institution, society or organization, unless the impulse that created it, builds up consciousness in other human beings that it must be cherished and developed, through days to come, against destructive forces of ignorance, malice, greed and indifference.

Social achievement is not one act or a thousand; it is a continued process. There should never come a time when a social worker points with pride and says: "See what I have built!" Even as he speaks walls are crumbling, and decay sets in. Self-complacency is not for social engineers, nor for artists who do social work. Nothing that matters will endure without constant human support. In social creations the only "safe" things are already . . . dead.

ARE AMERICANS a nation of murderers? For the past few years there have been about nine thousand homicides a year in this country, according to the Metropolitan Life Insurance Bulletin, seventeen times the number which would have occurred if the homicide rate of England and Wales prevailed here. In Chicago alone in 1922 more homicides (228) were committed than in all of England and Wales (202) in that year. The company, which paid out nearly three-quarters of a million dollars in homicide claims alone in 1923, feels the need of a systematic study of the facts on police and judicial activity in such cases on the "epidemic" aspects of homicide, its seasonal and comparative geographic and racial characteristics, and has itself started a study of its own homicide cases. Satisfactory information could be obtained for only 146 of the 446 homicide cases in its records for the last six months of 1922. As a result of these 146 homicides, there were 35 sentences to the penitentiary, one parole, one fine, and one execution! Thirty-two cases were rated as "justifiable homicide," that is, death inflicted in self-defense or by an officer of the law in the line of duty. In only 69 of the remaining 114 murder and manslaughter cases was an indictment brought; 58 came to trial, with a verdict of "not guilty" for 16 and one mis-trial. Of the 41 judged "guilty," 35 are serving time with appeal pending in six cases, three are held for a new trial or pending appeal, one was paroled, one fined, one executed.

CARRYING OUT Chapter 187 of the laws of 1924, New York state has organized a temporary commission "to inquire into and report upon the number, distribution, and condition of crippled children throughout the state, and the existing facilities and legal provisions for promoting the care, treatment, education and general welfare of such children, and to recommend means more adequate to meet their needs," reporting to the legislature by February 15, 1925.

In the meantime North Carolina has been completing a census of crippled children, carried out by the State Board of Charities and Public Welfare, and 400 of the 600 known crippled children in the state have already been examined during the course of eight clinics. Since January 1921 the state department of health of Illinois has conducted more than 350 clinics for crippled children at forty-two points throughout the state. In all 8,228 patients were examined, and medical service was supplied for all who were unable to obtain it privately. Only 10 per cent of the children seen were placed in institutions.

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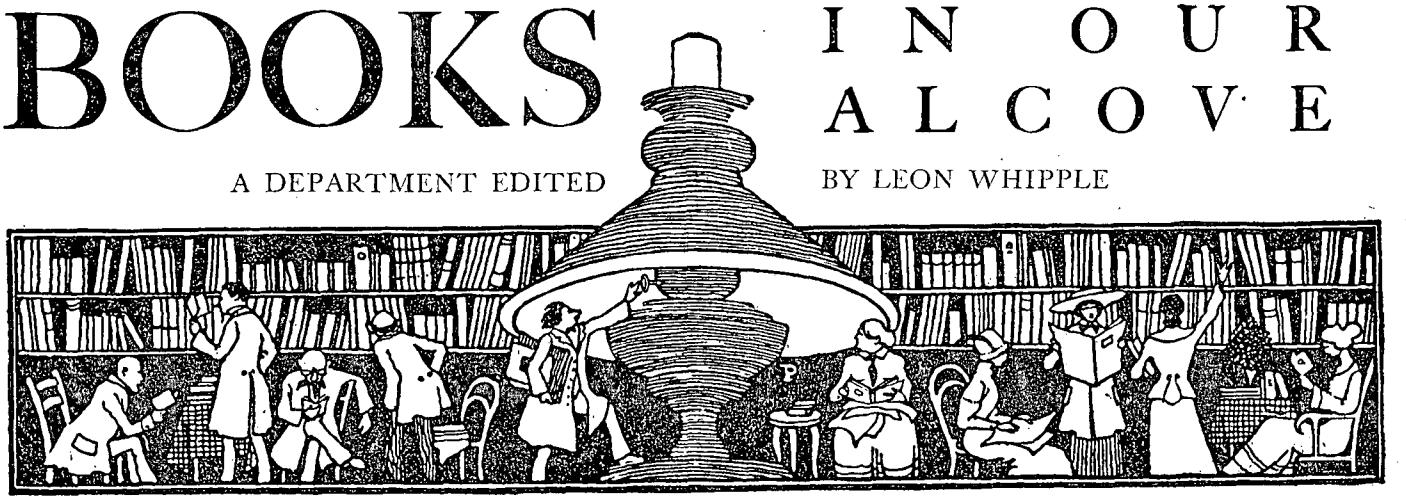
BOOKS IN OUR ALCOVE

A DEPARTMENT EDITED BY LEON WHIPPLE



Grace Before Meat

WE hold that the human race can do something about itself. Books can help. Hence, this Survey of Books. We have the ambition to list all the books a student of society and a lover of men may want to know about, and we cherish the wilder notion of separating the good books from the bad.

Now, books cannot help the race much unless the books are read, and as we breasted the flood of fall publications we felt there were enough books, but not enough readable ones. Here were amazing numbers and variety, erudition and wisdom, devotion and good intent, but here also was an amazing neglect of the mere courtesy of being interesting. Too many of our authors on social progress seem to feel no real duty of being readable, they are concerned still less to make their books beautiful, and nothing at all to make them joyous. Our first idea of separating the books is into dull, or interesting.

The lack of joy, of humour, of inner radiance is hard to understand. Here are messages about the loveliest hopes of humanity—good health, finer children, domestic peace, the charm of fuller living—and they are written with the graciousness noteworthy in the census reports . . . not, unfortunately, with the clarity. All of these books have it in mind somehow to add to the world's happiness; yet lots of them go about the task like mutes at a funeral. They gibber statistics; they use words my mid-west youth called "jaw-breakers"; they are mazed in their own artificial categories; they become pontifical, pompous and patronizing. The fine thought or the beneficent prescription is there: but the author *dares* you to find it!

We know that these books often deal with difficult technical subjects, and that they are often written by men and women who, however devoted, were not trained for authorship. Some, moreover, are interesting to the experts on their raw contents. But most of them would be more efficient if they were touched with the joy of living—for after all technique is only a means to an end in more joyous living.

We think joy means a sense of humility and humor, and we can't think the Englishman who calls his very useful book Reformatory Reform has even an English sense of humour. It is precise, precise as two scissor blades, but shades of Dickens, how foolish sounding, like "to tutor two tutors to toot." Do they send the reformatories to reformatories? Nearer home, our own Conference on the Christian Way of Life (not a very humble name itself!) issued a mad-sounding title—A Cooperative Technique for Conflict. This might be a treatise on international law, or the more widely-known codification of the rules of the game by the lamented Marquis of Queensberry, but it really is a very practical guide-book to peaceable public discussion. But who'd guess it?

Some authors for the common good do seek 'kick' in their titles. They put in either 'challenge' or 'creative,' (and often leave them out of the book). Yet they have a sense of detonating intellectual TNT with these two words, and some folks would die happy if they could call a book—The Challenge of Creative Behaviorism to the Envisaging Order. Yet people are trying to be simple and human in their books because they believe that social work must be simple and human in fact. Take Karl de Schweinitz's new book—The Art of Helping People Out of Trouble. There is color and hopefulness, and, withal, precision for it tells what social workers really ought to be after. It is far more ambitious than a challenge. For it claims their task as an art, and sets up the impossible dream of helping people. It's a better book than had it been tabbed is if in a card-index—The Technique of Case-Work in Family Welfare.

So, if you ask us—"How'll you have your books?" we respond heartily—"Sunny side up, please!"

Social Statesmanship and the Candidates

A Close-up of Coolidge

THE PREPARATION OF CALVIN COOLIDGE, *by Robert A. Woods. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 290 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

ANY study of Calvin Coolidge published at this time will be looked upon as a campaign document. So it is not surprising that twenty thousand paper-bound copies of Mr. Wood's book are to be distributed in the Republican campaign. Yet, unlike many campaign documents, the book is unusual. It is a study in character, not in any sense a biography. The author, whose name is well known to social workers throughout the country, has endeavored to interpret the development of the President's character.

As a college class-mate of Mr. Coolidge, I am impressed with the accuracy of the author in portraying the atmos-

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phere of New England and the Amherst background in which the President grew up, and which has had such a lasting influence upon his career. Mr. Woods evidently had access to material not hitherto available. Considerable attention is given to the President's early public life and acts in his home city of Northampton. We have the author's interpretation of the story of his progress as a public man, given at close range, with the people of Northampton as the true answer to the question as to wherein the present strength of the man lies. There follows the account of his activities as a state representative and senator, and finally as governor of Massachusetts—a record of slow but steady progress made as the result of painstaking hard work.

New light is thrown upon the attitude and accomplishments of Mr. Coolidge in social betterment work. One who knows of the President only since he has become a national figure will be surprised at the long list of definitely accomplished acts to his credit in these earlier years. His early struggles to obtain anti-monopoly legislation, his fight for the bill restricting the powers of the courts to issue injunctions, his sponsoring of the widows' pension bill, and of the bills for limiting the hours of labor for women and children and for reduced railroad fares for working people, all show a strong desire to improve the living conditions of the average man. The story of the ratification of the prohibition amendment, and Mr. Coolidge's part therein are especially interesting.

One wonders that so much space is given to the story of the famous Boston police strike and the part that the then Governor Coolidge took in it. Perhaps the author felt that this was necessary in view of the amount of attention his intervention has received. To the reviewer, however, it seems to have been the only thing for a man of Mr. Coolidge's previous record to have done under the conditions. On the other hand, the record of his part, as governor, in the reorganization of the state departments shows a side of the man that is not so well known.

The chapters devoted to his life as mayor of Northampton and as governor are instructive also as studies in the development of executive ability. Here is depicted a strength of character that had been steadily mounting so that in these positions new and difficult problems appeared to be handled with increasing ease.

The book is very readable and makes a definite appeal to thoughtful students. The author is evidently a great admirer of the President, but he writes with a spirit of open frankness and a manifest desire to be absolutely fair. So one who reads the book with care cannot help feeling that irrespective of any personal feeling, here is depicted a man who would leave any public office that he might occupy with a record of strengthening all the better tendencies in governmental affairs, and of having destroyed or weakened the things evil.

While this book shows some evidence of hasty preparation, its inherently good qualities are likely to make it one that will outlive the present situation.

LUCIUS EASTMAN

First Aid for Voters

OUR CHIEF MAGISTRATE, HIS POWERS, *by William H. Taft. Columbia University Press.*
THE PREPARATION OF CALVIN COOLIDGE, *by R. A. Woods. Houghton Mifflin (Reviewed p. 97).*
THE LIFE OF CALVIN COOLIDGE, *by Horace Green. Duffield.*
CAL COOLIDGE, *by Whiting Edward Elwell. W. A. Wilde. Boston.*
THE LIFE OF JOHN W. DAVIS, *by Theodore H. Huntley and Horace Green. Duffield.*
DAWES, *by Carl Akerman, Era Publications*
AUTOBIOGRAPHY, *by Robert M. La Follette*
YOU TAKE YOUR CHOICE, *by Clinton W. Gilbert. Putnam.*
MEN AND ISSUES, *by George Wharton Pepper. Duffield.*
AMERICAN PROBLEMS, *by William E. Borah. Duffield.*
WHAT LAFOLLETTE'S STATE IS DOING, *by Chester C. Platt. Batavia Times Press, N. Y.*
NATIONAL PARTY PLATFORMS, *by Kirk H. Porter. Macmillan.*
THE POLITICAL PARTIES OF TODAY, *by Arthur N. Holcombe. Harper.*
POLITICAL PARTIES AND ELECTORAL PROBLEMS, *by Robert C. Brooks. Harper.*
THE EVOLUTION OF AMERICAN POLITICAL PARTIES, *by Edgar E. Robinson. Harcourt, Brace.*
A HISTORY OF POLITICAL IDEAS, *by C. R. Morris. Putnam.*
NON-VOTING: CAUSES AND CONTROL, *by Charles E. Merriam and Harold F. Gosnell. University of Chicago Press.*
THE CITIZEN'S BUSINESS, *by William Allen White. Macmillan.*
THE GREAT GAME OF POLITICS, *by Frank R. Kent. Doubleday, Page and Co.*
PERSONALITY IN POLITICS, REFORMERS, BOSSES AND LEADERS, *by W. B. Munro. Macmillan*
THE PASSING OF POLITICS, *by William Kay Wallace. Macmillan.*
A DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN POLITICS, *by Edward C. Smith. A. L. Burt.*

In the Jeffersonian Manner

THE LIFE OF JOHN W. DAVIS, *by Theodore A. Huntley. Duffield. 260 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

STUDENTS of sociology must feel a special interest in a campaign biography of a candidate. But in the nature of the case such books, written by friends and admirers, are a presentation of those facts about the candidate that the authors believe will attract voters.

Mr. Huntley was a "John W. Davis man" before the Democratic convention met. So he is not only a historian carefully studying old files of the Congressional Record, of court calendars, and newspapers; he also hopes to be a vote-getter. His book, therefore, is more than an account of the life of John W. Davis—in this case a very readable account—for it is to some extent a revelation of what qualities in a presidential candidate, Mr. Huntley thinks the people want.

Considerable space is given to the candidate's antecedents and childhood. A very good case is made for the legitimacy of his "Jeffersonian Democracy." The description of the candidate's father, "John J." is quite the most charming part of the book. The story of "John J's" fight against "monopoly" and his final defeat by "the moneyed interests" reads like a political romance of the insurgent days of 1910. The picture is vivid of the gallant old gentleman, fighting a losing fight for the preservation of the ideals of Jefferson, against the growing industrialism of northern West Virginia. It was in the midst of this struggle that the candidate grew up. He did not acquire his theories of government at, or after college, he learned them at home.

Mr. Huntley also gives considerable space to "the Debs incident." There is no court record to show that John W. Davis ever defended either Eugene Debs or "Mother" Jones, but there is record that he was attorney for a group of miners imprisoned on injunction proceedings, at the time of "the Debs incident." There is an anecdote about the candidate in this connection, which, unfortunately, Mr. Huntley did not know. Shortly after his nomination, he was asked if he remembered these labor cases.

Yes, [he said.] It was, as far as I know, the first time

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my name was ever mentioned in a New York newspaper. I was young enough to get quite a thrill out of it. A number of New York newspaper men were down there covering the strike. One of them liked my plea for the miners so much that he telegraphed part of it to his paper. I'll never forget reading the account—my name in a New York paper! I was so pleased that I looked up the reporter. It was the beginning of a friendship. I met him later in Congress. He was Henry George, Jr., son of the single-taxer, and, [he added, with an amused smile,] the paper was Hearst's.

There is considerable humor in the thought that John W. Davis was first introduced to New Yorkers as a defender of labor by Mr. Hearst.

After Davis's election to Congress, the record becomes official and not so vivid as the stories of his family and youth in Clarksburg. Mr. Huntley has made a careful resumé of the record, as congressman, solicitor general of the United States, and ambassador. This record, it is conceded by his opponents, even in the heat of a campaign, is one of brilliant public service.

The second part of this volume is made up of extracts from the public utterances of Mr. Davis, before his nomination. This has been compiled by Horace Green, the general editor of this series of volumes on contemporary statesmen. The selections confirm the characterization of the man in Mr. Huntley's study. ARTHUR BULLARD

LaFollette—by Himself

AUTOBIOGRAPHY, *by Robert M. LaFollette. Published by the author. 807 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

I WISH that every voter were sufficiently open-minded to read LaFollette's autobiography before election.

It is impossible not to be impressed with this Personal Narrative of Political Experience. Names, documents, confirmations of every sort cover the pages. And these make revelations of which the average voter, man or woman, has little knowledge. It is an absorbing record, from the picture of the Wisconsin log-cabin birthplace of LaFollette—this is America's last chance to have a long-cabin birthplace for a president!—on to the final paragraph of the book:

> I believe, with increasing depth of conviction, that we will one day . . . reclaim and preserve not only the forms but the spirit of our free institutions.

Both in its political philosophy, which is slowly being echoed round the world, and in its narrative, the book will be a storehouse of treasure to the future student of politics.

For here are opened to the public two laboratories: One is in Wisconsin where was tried out much of the forward-looking legislation of the day—physical valuation of the railroads, railroad rate legislation, the preferential primary, the limiting and making public of campaign expenditures, the legislative reference library, the whole area of labor legislation eventuating in the Industrial Commission, *with its power to enforce the law*. And in all these victories for the public, Governor LaFollette was the "moving spirit"—an expression of peculiar richness and applicability in this instance.

The other laboratory was Washington and the stories of attempts and successes at holding private control of national resources and the necessities of life are stories to which constant students of these conditions are not always even yet alive. His part in the last session of Congress, with respect to oil and taxation is fresh in mind. But it was back in the 90's that, as congressman, LaFollette succeeded in keeping from the railways grants of hundreds of acres of Dakota Indian Reservation land. And it was in 1903 that as Senator he was crying for public control of Alaska mineral lands.

His espousal of the cause of working children and working women, of the men who follow the hazards of the sea and of the railroad is part of the legislative record of the last two decades. The 1924 chapter has yet to be added to his book; but whatever it may be, the gallant record will stand. If one can detach oneself now, as will the student of the future—from the sound and fury of the day, one will see this record as one of the important documents of the political history of the United States. And as one of its finest prophecies. ZONA GALE

Chacun á Son Goût

"YOU TAKE YOUR CHOICE," *by Clinton W. Gilbert. Putnam's. 255 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

MR. GILBERT had it in mind to be honest about our candidates. He is tired of myth-making journalism. He also had it in mind to astound the bourgeoisie—which he does by the simple, but sure-fire, device of telling the truth. The result is a series of sketches of the presidential aspirants, filled out with some silhouettes of their satellites. The penetrant and reportorial Mr. Gilbert is as brilliant and amusing as he was in "The Mirrors of Washington," and he also cuts deeper into character and national psychology. He will shock some by his superficial cynicism of a journalist, and he will tickle the groundlings by his apparent indiscretions—the seeming confidential gossip of one in the know. He will delight everyone who is aweary of campaign hokum and the manufacture of verbal haloes for these gentlemen who really have not become supermen just because they are seized with a passion to be President. Indeed, our author hints that because they want to, or have a chance to, become President is reason for suspecting they are *not* supermen. He says: "One never becomes President to whom you apply the word 'too'."

The earnest seeker after a judgment as to which of these men will do the most for social betterment, if elected, will find little of records or programs. (Mr. Gilbert does add the LaFollette platform as evidence of the kind of man he is describing.) We do get what is in the long run more useful—an appraisal of the man's insides . . . not what he promises, but what he is.

Mr. Coolidge, for example, is psycho-analyzed under the label given him by a fellow legislator in Massachusetts: "He is like a singed cat, better than he looks." This singed cat sense—our omni-present friend, the inferiority complex—has made Coolidge cautious, humble, and developed strength as does a weak heart from the effort to compensate. He is a conservative because he hasn't too much vitality. He is frugal of words, unlike Mr. Harding who "had gusto, very bad gusto, but still gusto" and "who loved words not wisely, but too well." He has faith in our institutions, in democracy, and an old-fashioned sense of morality. He is a "good man." But he takes us back to the Adamses, and "he has a hereditary instinct to stick close to what is, to distrust change and movement." The social worker gets an idea of what he may expect from Coolidge, whether of help to democratic decency, or resistance to innovating ideas.

The study of Davis seems to me the best done, and in essence, most informative. Instead of telling what the man is, he puts him in his place. He describes the *milieu* and

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success of this "sweetly reasonable, fair-haired boy" so that anybody who knows anything of American life can tell what he believes, and how he will react to new things. His progress from congressman, through the Solicitor-General's office (when the Supreme Court judges fairly hovered over him) to become Ambassador to England, and return with the pick of any legal affiliation he wanted to make—and end up as senior partner in Mr. J. P. Morgan's law firm with a retainer rumored to be $350,000 a year—well, implies Mr. Gilbert, he's that kind of a man. And adds the critic, "I think he won't find the economic or class issue at all to his liking."

Mr. LaFollette has always "been at odds with the world. . . . He does not act in the accepted manner." This is a way of saying that LaFollette's key is individualism—his own "dour, stand-offish, lonely individualism" and his "regressive Progressive" individualism as a philosophy against monopoly and interests. Gilbert declares that LaFollette is probably "of greater political ability than either of his rivals . . . and a man of purest personal and political character." But there is something of the actor about him, and he is obstinate and intractable. Here Mr. Gilbert has some illuminating ideas about what is a Progressive and the meaning of the new orientation of labor in the third party.

The lesser lights are limned tellingly, if briefly. Charley Bryan is a "born shop-keeper"; Dawes a banker by nature and a player of the fiddle by taste who is so instinctively regular that he seems fresh and devilish; Wheeler, a Montana fighter, "rough," and acting on the gun-man's maxim "He'll get me if I don't get him first." Perhaps the epigrams and labels are too facile and a bit o'er smart, but we think a voter may well get more light on his choices from these studies than from all the official biographies. Certainly he will have a chuckling time, and a naughty sense of sophistication.

W.

Partners in Creation

CREATIVE EXPERIENCE, *by M. P. Follett. Longmans, Green & Co. 303 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

WHEN the review copy of Creative Experience reached the Survey, a distinguished philosopher advised the editors to assign it to a recognized expert. "That book," he said, "is either exceptionally important or it is glorious nonsense; in either case it calls for authoritative appraisal." While the other editors pursued the experts I read the book. Then I re-read it and read it again. I am far from possessing an expert's equipment for such a verdict as the distinguished philosopher had in mind. Yet I asked for the privilege of writing this review because, having shared the experience of social workers in family relief and rehabilitation, in hospitals and dispensaries, in rural communities, in mining camps and factories, I wanted to share with them the exhilaration, delight and rare illumination which I myself have derived from Miss Follett's essay. Her thinking has electrified my own. My relationship to the community, the relationship of the individual to society and of society to the individual, the nature of the conflict between racial and national groups, between capital and labor, between the expert and the people, between government and the governed, the possibility of converting conflict into an integrative force, she has charged with fresh significance.

I call Creative Experience an essay because, while it is a volume of three hundred pages, it does not dogmatize; its declarative ardor is the incandescence of intense experimental thinking; latent in its most positive affirmations is the spirit of open-minded scientific enquiry—the appeal to the reader to establish a "circular response" with the author and so consciously to share in the creative process. "We seek reality in experience. . . . All human intercourse should be the evocation by each from the other of new forms undreamed of before. . . . The test of the validity of any social process is whether this is taking place between one and another, between capital and labor, between nation and nation. . . . Release, evocation—evocation by release, release by evocation—this is the fundamental law of the universe."

The object of Miss Follett's book is "to *suggest* that we seek a way by which desires may interweave, that we seek a method by which the full integrity of the individual shall be one with social progress." When she speaks of the individual she does not mean the elect and superior individual of the intelligence tests; she means all individuals. When she speaks of social progress she does not mean the world domination of the Nordics, or Semites, or Mongols; she means the consciously controlled evolution of an inclusive world civilization. The method she seeks is one by which through the deliberate interrelating, interweaving, integration of our diverse ideas, opinions, purposes, desires, we get "plus values," for "we are creating each other all the time." This is the continuing miracle of self-governing existence, that when mind freely meets mind a "circular response" is established through which ideas, purposes, desires neither cancel one another, nor prevail over one another, but through integration create new and freshly dynamic ideas,—"forms undreamed of before." The bearing of this conception upon disputes between individuals, upon conflicts between groups, classes, nations, is tremendous. Not destruction, but interrelating and creative integration, is progress. "The confronting of diverse desires, the revealing of values; the consequent revaluation of values, a uniting of desires which we welcome because it means that the next diversity will emerge on a higher social level—this is progress."

The discovery of the method depends upon the preliminary discovery of the nature of the creative process itself. Miss Follett's initial illustration of the barriers that inhibit the circular response through which, when the channels of interrelation are free, "we create one another," strikes home to the core of social work. The warrant for the social worker's existence is that he is an expert in some field of human activity. It is his business to bring an expert knowledge of the facts and a scientific technique to bear upon the problems of the family, of community organization, of individual conduct and public policy as they affect the satisfaction of human needs. How often has it not been declared that the success or failure of democracy depends upon the capacity of the people to avail themselves of the skill of the expert, to learn the wisdom of obedience to expert guidance? Is that not the general tenor of the doctrine? Is it not this certain condescension in the expert that has evoked the popular josh: "I aint askin' you; I'm tellin' you"? Is this courtly arrogance not implicit in the doctrine known as the consent of the governed? Here is the crux of a paramount problem in our struggle toward democracy. "To divide society on the

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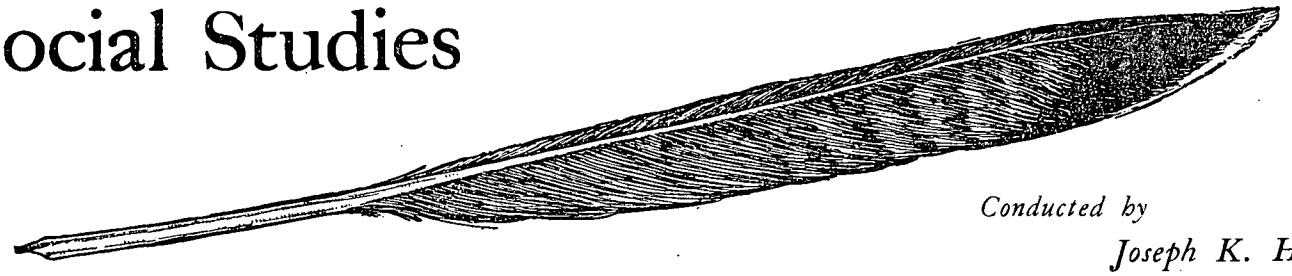
Social Studies



Conducted by
Joseph K. Hart

Trends of the Time

PESSIMISTIC readers of the daily news are inclined to say that "the world is a dolt." Less pessimistic ones do not care to go quite that far; but they agree with Mr. Weller in his opinion that "the law is a ass." Evidence for both these opinions can be found in this issue of The Survey; especially for the second opinion. Certainly the law that can find "benevolence unconstitutional" has much to answer for; and the court that can make no use of the growing intelligence of the world along psychological and psychiatric lines is in need of help.

But, on the other hand, there is much evidence that groups and individuals, all over the land, are not bound by the inertias, the stagnations and the reverence for ancient accidents that characterize some of our institutions and our institutionalized minds. Boston may be a state of mind, but Boston knows how to change an occasional corner of her mind, anyhow. Sheffield, England's great industrial center, has found out that not only can steel be bought by the pound, but that health, also, can be secured at an established rate per pound. The spirit of adventurous intellectual inquiry is making headway, here and there, against the old inertias, the old stagnations and the old reverences for the merely accidental in habit and custom. Organization is turning new intelligence into new control. This is perfectly normal and natural. We are learning how to escape from the drifts of the past; we are learning how to build new ways nearer to our needs and to our hearts' desires.

Here is evidence that the world is going backwards; that the world is going forward; that the world is standing still. Here are programs to be fought; programs to be aided; programs to be ignored. Here is current history—a cross-section of our times, with materials that will make us happy; that will make us sad; that will leave us cold. One great need of our times is that individuals, everywhere, should actually come to feel the pull and haul of these cross-currents of events.

Here is some evidence, then, from the life of our times. In Alice in Wonderland, the queen suggested that the jury bring in its verdict and then examine the evidence. That's an interesting method. Here's a better. Here is the evidence. May it get to the reader and student in time to be of use before the verdict has been decided upon!

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Partners in Creation

(*Continued from page* 100)

one side into the expert and the governors basing their government on their reports, and on the other the people consenting, is, I believe," says Miss Follett, "a disaster-courting procedure." So long as the expert is regarded or regards himself as "someone who knows absolutely and can tell us what to do," the circular response between him and us is inhibited and the process by which he might create us while we create him fails to operate as an electric current fails when the circuit is broken. Facts, expert knowledge, are immensely important. "When for lack of facts you and I are responding to a different situation,—if I think I am looking at a black snake and you think it is a fallen branch, our talk is merely chaotic." "Yet," as Justice Holmes says, "it is not the acquisition of facts that is important but learning how to make facts live . . . leap into an organic order, live and bear fruit." This leaping into organic order, this living and bearing fruit depends upon the use of facts, not to promulgate edicts, but to clear the ground of misconceptions, to make straight the way of the circular response through which the experience of all of us may integrate and so become creative. This is the nature of the creative process.

I do not know whether this "most fundamental thought that reaction is always reaction to a relating," that the relating is the essence of the creative process, is original with Miss Follett or not. That is after all irrelevant. I recall that in the introduction to her earlier essay, The New State, she said that much of the book had come to her by wireless. I also recall that Haldane, Lord Chancellor of England, having asked her to let him write "a few pages introductory to the next issue of your book," declared that she had explored her subject "with a learning and grasp which it would be difficult to surpass." Such a tribute I am not qualified to bring to the author of Creative Experience. My desire has been to encourage Survey readers to share in an exhilarating spiritual adventure, in which all of the problems that confront social workers and socially minded folk generally take on new significance. Here the individual, the group, the courts, the law, classes, nations, diverse desires, conflicting purposes cease to be discrete and irreconcilable entities and appear as living strands on the loom of time whose interweaving we can guide, whose pattern we can control. I wanted to write this review because for me the reading of Miss Follett's book has in itself been a creative experience. ROBERT W. BRUÈRE

Is Religion a Psychosis?

THE MYSTERY OF RELIGION, *by Everett Dean Martin. Harper & Brothers. 391 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

MR. MARTIN is perhaps the first writer to place before the general public in readable form a compendium of the facts concerning religion which have heretofore been the exclusive property of the psychoanalyst. His general thesis is that religion, far from being super-ordained, or established in concepts of dogma or moral law, is an internal necessity of the religiously-minded individual. It is a quasi-normal form of release or resolution of those conflicts which in the true psychoneurotic take expression through the pathological behavior of hysteria. Upon a mass scale it becomes a sort of benign social psychosis. Although this view removes all transcendental sanction from religion, it by no means lessens the value and significance of religion for life. Religious thinking, according to Martin, is a kind of special pleading or rationalization to give logical support to the scheme whereby one lifts himself above infantile love fixations. Salvation means reconciliation with the perfection of the childhood father image, from which one has been estranged by jealousy (Oedipus motive) and repression. This estrangement produces a conviction of sin (the repressed material) which religious conversion alleviates through a kind of transference to the divine paternal being.

One may object, at this point, that Mr. Martin does not adequately consider differences of sex in his treatment of the particular conflicts which are presupposed. As with most generalized applications of psychoanalytic principles to social phenomena there is a real danger of a superficial use of stock

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conflicts as categories of explanation. We need a more empirical approach than can be gained from a few biographic and introspective studies of famous religious zealots. A set of observations at the "mourner's bench," combined with detailed and first hand psychoanalyses of the converts, with genetic data, family history and the like, would be required for a thorough scientific approach. Little can be said concerning the social phases until we know more detail of the relation of religious expression to conflict in particular individuals. Mr. Martin's book, however, stands as a most creditable introduction to a genuine empirical study.

Among the more successful chapters are those dealing with the symbolic nature of religious expression; the elements of regression to possession of and identification with the mother (baptism); the use of religion as a relief from attitudes of inferiority; and the various crowd factors, such as absolutism, intolerance, collective egotism, compensation, and projection which were developed in the author's earlier work The Behavior of Crowds. The close similarity between the compulsive acts of the neurotic and the over scrupulous and ritualistic morality of religion is significantly revealed. The treatment of redemption and the crucifixion dogma is neither clear nor convincing.

Penetrating as it does into the very foundations of the fictions by which men and women live, and give moral valuation to the world they live in, The Mystery of Religion may be expected to evoke a storm of objection in certain quarters. In the reviewer's opinion, however, the book in its essential message will stand the test. It is not so convincing as The Behavior of Crowds; but that is to be expected since it penetrates to a far deeper and more obscure level of human nature than does the latter work. It has the virtue, however, of being less dogmatic in assertion. FLOYD H. ALLPORT

What Not to Know About Cancer

CANCER: HOW IT IS CAUSED: HOW IT CAN BE PREVENTED, *by J. Ellis Barker. E. P. Dutton Co. 478 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

AT last the complete and final story, giving the horror and mystery of cancer, exposing the despairing inadequacy of the scientists, and best of all telling us in more or less plain language, perfectly obvious and strangely simple, the real causes and the formula for personal prevention of cancer! A book one is tempted to put into the hands of the laity because almost anyone with a modicum of common sense will see through the appearance of reasonableness in the argument and confute it from his own experience.

This is as futile and mischievous a piece of would-be "popular science" as has been issued to befog the searcher for self-protection in health. It presents an amazing mixture of self-assurance and unrelated guesses. The preface is full of specious reasons why trust should be put in the wisdom of the author, and the chapters that follow full of reasons why he is untrustworthy. He mistakes repetition of error for accumulated evidence. He claims to be presenting new data while obviously straining to use all the names and quotations his fanciful discussion will bear.

His story is much like this: I believe that 90 per cent of cancers are due to poisoning of the body. If that is so probably the other 10 per cent are due to the same cause. Therefore 99 per cent or more of cancer is due to poisoning. Cancer has been shown to be due to poisoning by arsenic, tar products, aniline dyes after 10-30 years exposure. Constipation is a chronic ailment of many years duration and women suffer from it more than men. Therefore, the poisons, those much abused auto-intoxications, of constipation cause cancer and of course more women have it than men. Lack of vitamines disturbs digestion. Disturbed digestion leads to auto-intoxication and constipation. Hence devitaminized foods cause cancer. q. e. d.

Sugar is used too much. Sugar causes fermentative indigestion. So, of course, it is in a way responsible for cancer. Hot baths are not used by many aborigines. These people are reported to have less cancer than so-called civilized people, therefore we'd better not take hot baths lest we develop cancer.

As he suggests quite naively, (*Continued on page* 105)

Books for Survey Readers

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By Robert A. Woods

An intimate and illuminating study, written by a man eminent in social service; and stressing the aspects of the President's career that will be of special interest to Survey readers. $1.50

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COMMUNICATIONS

Representative Government

TO THE EDITOR: In your number of August 1 appears an article by Orville A. Welsh entitled "American Rotten Boroughs." This article points out the gross inequalities in representation in the state legislatures of Rhode Island, Connecticut and several other states. It seems impossible that any thoughtful student of government could justify a representative system which gives to the city of Providence, with a population of 250,000, the same representation—one senator—as the little town of West Greenwich with a population of 367.

It is unfortunate, however, that Mr. Welsh did not study the Massachusetts system of representation more carefully before referring to it in this article. He is correct in saying that Massachusetts originally had equal representation for all cities and towns. His statement "that Massachusetts a few years ago put its legislature on a population basis" is incorrect. The old method was abolished by constitutional amendment in 1857 and representation, both in House and Senate, was based not upon municipalities, not upon population, but upon the number of *"legal voters"* in each community. A special enumeration of legal voters is taken once in ten years followed by a redistricting of the state. The senatorial districts are established by state law the representative districts by county officials. The Supreme Judicial Court has jurisdiction to disallow local redistricting which is manifestly unfair. (See Attorney General v. Apportionment Commissioners 224 Mass. 598 and other cases.)

It was formerly considered that the term "legal voters" included all persons possessing the qualifications for the franchise under the Constitution regardless of whether or not they were duly registered on the voting list. The census enumerators therefore made up a special list of such potential voters. The franchise in Massachusetts is limited to citizens twenty-one years of age and over, having a residence in the state one year, and in the town or district six months. Ability to read the Constitution in the English language and to write one's name unless prevented by physical disability is also required and persons under guardianship, paupers and others disqualified because of corrupt practices in elections are excluded. The information thus obtained by the census enumerators could not be verified, and it was felt that aliens and other persons not eligible to vote may have been by error included in the list of legal voters. Such errors, whether intentional or not, may have given some districts greater representation than they were rightfully entitled to.

This question has now been settled by an opinion of the justices of the Supreme Judicial Court rendered to the House of Representatives in March 1924. The justices decided that the term "legal voters" means duly registered voters whose names are on the voting list and who may lawfully cast their votes on election day.

Is not this Massachusetts system, thus interpreted, fair and just? Each town and ward will hereafter be represented in the Senate and House in accordance, not with population which may include many aliens and transient residents, but with the sworn list of registered voters. Those districts where the citizens accept the responsibility and exercise the privilege of citizenship will have more representation than those communities where the citizens, although legally entitled to vote, do not bother even to register as voters.

The theory of representation based on population does not seem reasonable. Take the case of two communities with a population of 100,000. One of them has a foreign population of 50 per cent. Why should the citizens living in that community receive twice the representation in the state government which is accorded to the voters who live in a community consisting entirely of American citizens. It is submitted that the Massachusetts method of representation, based on legal voters, is absolutely fair and strictly in accordance with fundamental principles of American representative government. . . .

I hesitate to discuss an entirely different problem of government in this same letter, namely, municipal home rule, but Mr. Welsh does so, and that is my justification. We may find complete home rule with very unfair legislative representation or we may find the reverse of this situation. They are different problems. In Massachusetts the state government does perform some functions with regard to the city of Boston which in the case of other cities are delegated to the local authorities but Mr. Welsh cites examples which are not wholly justified by the facts.

The Department of Public Utilities supervises the rates and service of public utilities not merely in Boston but throughout the entire state, a principle which has been admitted as correct all over the country. The same public utilities which serve the city of Boston with electricity, gas and transportation, serve many other surrounding cities and towns. It would be unreasonable and wasteful to have separate municipal regulation in every city and town. The Boston Elevated Railway was taken over by the state in 1918 under a lease which provides for a guaranteed rental. This road serves many communities and is managed by a board of five trustees appointed by the governor. The Boston subways are owned by the city which receives a rental for their use. The Police Commissioner of Boston and the Boston Licensing Board which dates back to pre-Volstead days are appointed by the governor. This method is opposed by many politicians in Boston, but seems to command public support throughout the state. It should be remembered that Boston is not merely the state capitol but also the financial and business center of Massachusetts to an extent which gives the people of the state a greater interest in public order in Boston than in other cities and towns.

All cities and towns, except Boston, are subject to a general municipal finance act governing municipal indebtedness and accounting. The Finance Commission of Boston, created by state law, is unique, but it has no executive authority, its powers being merely those of investigating and recommendation. It has far less supervision over the finances of Boston than, in the case of all other cities and towns, is exercised by the State Division of Accounts. Notes of other municipalities are not valid unless certified by the state, and local accounts are subject to a regular state audit. Boston alone has a special tax limit which cannot be exceeded, but within that limit the tax rate is fixed by the local authorities. The tax limit law formerly applied to all cities. This system was changed in 1913, and it is significant that the representatives from Boston were instrumental in having their city exempted from the general act of 1913 and still kept under the old tax limit statute. It is probably true that the Massachusetts legislature is burdened with too much special legislation for cities and towns but this does not apply alone in the case of Boston. Mr. Welsh's suggestion that a partial reform has been accomplished through the "initiative and referendum" must be questioned. The "initiative and referendum" does not apply to measures affecting only a particular city or district, and has not been invoked in any way with regard to the city of Boston or its relations to the government of the state.

The two questions discussed by Mr. Welsh are a long way from settlement. Scientific study and investigation, practical experiment, discussion and debate may eventually bring about correct solutions. In the meantime, however, it is only fair to show that Massachusetts has, on the whole, a system that is more democratic and which works in a more satisfactory manner than is the case in most of her sister states.

BENJAMIN LORING YOUNG
Speaker, House of Representatives,
Commonwealth of Massachusetts

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(Continued from page 103)

after 394 pages of such nonsense, "If the cancer theory put forward is right, it should solve all the mysteries of that disease." Science will be busy with that "If" for some time.

Is it not true that the author was once sick and considered himself in a precancerous stage, and did he not adjust his life to a hygienic diet and manner of life and become quite well? What more proof do you want that he prevented cancer in himself and his theory is right? HAVEN EMERSON, M. D.

THE RUN OF THE SHELVES

Books are listed here as received. Many of those mentioned by name only in the classified sections below will be reviewed later.

Education, Ethics and Sociology

MENTAL TRAINING FOR THE PRE-SCHOOL-AGE CHILD, *by Lillien J. Martin and Clare de Gruchy. Harr Wagner Publishing Co., San Francisco. 108 pp.*

SOME exceedingly important discussions of processes and "rules" in the education of children—and parents. More than most writers in these fields, the authors understand that there can be little progress in an education that goes on wholly on the inside of the mind of the child, while neglecting consideration of the environmental world within which this educated child is to live. J. K. H.

PRACTICAL PSYCHOLOGY, *by Burt B. Farnsworth. C. W. Clark Co., New York. 308 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A DISCUSSION, mostly in the form of stenographer's notes of lectures, in the field of practical psychology "for men and women in the industries and professions and for the general reader." The author is an executive secretary in the Y. M. C. A. His purpose has been to present some generally accepted principles of psychology and to show how these may be applied to one's own development and to the better understanding of others. The psychology is fairly elementary. The treatment of Freudianism, e. g., is superficial and motivated by emotion. While the book has some good materials in it, it can scarcely be recommended because of its unsatisfactory handling of problems with which the author is but slightly or prejudicially acquainted. J. K. H.

SOCIAL SCIENCES FOR TEACHERS, *by Charles E. Martz and John A. Kinneman. Houghton Mifflin Co. 340 pp. Price $1.90 postpaid of The Survey.*

A BOOK for teachers of the social sciences, not a class-book for pupils; but since, at present, teachers of the social sciences need educating more than the pupils do, this should prove to be a very useful book. J. K. H.

AN INTRODUCTION TO THE THEORY OF EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENTS, *by Walter S. Monroe. Houghton Mifflin Co. 364 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

AN ADVANCED text book on tests and measurements, dealing with the fundamental theories that underlie the construction, use and interpretation of educational tests. The author has done considerable work in this field and believes all that has been said in praise of the tests—and very little that has appears for the first time in English in this edition. J. K. H.

INTELLIGENCE TESTING, *by Rudolph Pintner. Henry Holt and Company. 406 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

AN ELEMENTARY text giving a simple account of intelligence testing and the results which have so far been achieved by the testing movement, designed for use as a college text. The author accepts the term "general intelligence" as having concrete meaning and as being capable of measurement. J. K. H.

NATIONAL EDUCATION, *by DuPont de Nemours. University of Delaware Press, Newark, Del. 161 pp.*

THIS IS a translation, by B. G. DuPont, from the second French edition (1812) of a work (Continued on page 107)

The most serious problem confronting the nations today is that presented in J. H. Oldham's "Christianity and the Race Problem" which has attracted extraordinary attention in England. "A work of conspicuous fairness and ability," says Dean Inge in the London Morning Post. "Singularly unprejudiced," is the verdict of the London Times.

DORAN BOOKS

THE LABOR MOVEMENT IN A GOVERNMENT INDUSTRY

Sterling Denhard Spero

A study of employee organization in the U. S. Postal Service. In effect, an unprejudiced history of the Post Office of wide public interest and real public importance. $2.00

THE AWAKENING OF ITALY: THE FASCISTA REGENERAT [illegible]

Luigi Villari

A singularly lucid and full account. Although the author is an admirer of Mussolini's achievement, he is not blind to the difficulties in the path or the special problems Fascism must solve. $4.00

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AMERICAN COUNTRY LIFE ASSOCIATION—K. L. Butterfield, president; Henry Israel, executive secretary. Room 1849, Grand Central Terminal Bldg., New York City. Emphasizes the human aspect of country life. Annual membership $3.00 includes "The Country Life Bulletin."

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION—Lita Bane, executive secretary, Grace Dodge Hotel, Washington, D. C. Organized for betterment of conditions in home, school, institution and community. Publishes monthly Journal of Home Economics: office of editor, Grace Dodge Hotel, Washington, D. C.; of business manager, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

AMERICAN PEACE SOCIETY—Founded 1828, labors for an international peace of justice. Its official organ is the Advocate of Peace, $2.00 a year. Arthur Deerin Call, secretary and editor, 612-614 Colorado Building, Washington, D. C.

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AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. To promote a better understanding of the social hygiene movement; to advance sound sex education; to combat prostitution and sex delinquency; to aid public authorities in the campaign against the venereal diseases; to advise in organization of state and local social-hygiene programs. Annual membership dues $2.00 including monthly journal.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA—C. C. Carstens, director. 130 E. 22d Street, New York City. A league of children's agencies and institutions to secure improved standards and methods in their various fields of work. It also cooperates with other children's agencies, cities, states, churches, fraternal orders and other civic groups to work out worth-while results in phases of child welfare in which they are interested.

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COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN—305 W. 98th Street, New York. Miss Rose Brenner, pres.; Mrs. Harry Sternberger, ex. sec'y. Promotes civic cooperation, education, religion and social welfare in the United States, Canada, Cuba, Europe.

Department of Immigrant Aid—799 Broadway. Mrs. S. J. Rosensohn, chairman. For the protection and education of immigrant women and girls.

COUNCIL OF WOMEN FOR HOME MISSIONS—156 Fifth Avenue, New York. Organized in 1908; 20 constituent Protestant national women's mission boards. Florence E. Quinlan, exec. sec'y. Committee on Farm and Cannery Migrants, Summer Service for College Students, Laura H. Parker, exec. supervisor.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA—Constituted by 30 Protestant denominations. Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, Rev. S. M. Cavert, gen'l sec'ys, 105 E. 22nd Street, New York.

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INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—First appointed 1854, located New York City 1866, incorporated 1883. Headquarters office, 347 Madison Ave., New York City, N. Y. Tel. Vanderbilt 1200. Branch offices, Chicago, Atlanta, Denver. Chairman, James M. Speers; Treasurer, B. H. Fancher; General Sec'y, John R. Mott. The Committee maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries for service in the interests of the Young Men's Christian Associations at home and abroad.

JOINT COMMITTEE ON METHODS OF PREVENTING DELINQUENCY—Graham Romeyn Taylor, executive director, 50 East 42d Street, New York. To promote the adoption of sound methods in this field, with particular reference to psychiatric clinics, visiting teacher work, and training for these and similar services; to conduct related studies, education and publication; and to interpret the work of the Commonwealth Fund Program for the Prevention of Delinquency.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF CIVIC SECRETARIES—Walter T. Arndt, president, New York; Robert E. Tracy, secretary, 313 South Broad Street, Philadelphia. Purpose—To provide contact and interchange of ideas and information among professional secretaries of civic organizations. Meets Cambridge, Mass. November 10-12. 1924.

NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMENS CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—Mrs. Robert E. Speer, president; Miss Mabel Cratty, general secretary, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City. This organization maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries to cover work in the United States in 1,034 local Y. W. C. A.'s on behalf of the industrial, business, student, foreign born, Indian, Colored and younger girls. It has 159 American secretaries at work in 49 centers in the Orient, Latin America and Europe.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE—Owen R. Lovejoy, sec'y: 215 Fourth Avenue, New York. Industrial, agricultural investigations. Works for improved laws and administration; children's codes. Studies health, schools, recreation, dependency, delinquency, etc. Annual membership, $2, $5, $10. $25 and $100; includes monthly bulletin, "The American Child."

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THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE—Dr. William H. Welch, pres.; Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, med. dir.; Dr. Clarence J. D'Alton, executive assistant; Clifford W. Beers, sec'y; 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. Pamphlets on mental hygiene, nervous and mental disorders, feeble-mindedness, epilepsy, inebriety, criminology, psychiatric social service, backward children, surveys, state societies. "Mental Hygiene," quarterly, $3.00 a year; "Mental Hygiene Bulletin," monthly, $ .25 a year.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—Wm. J. Norton, president, Detroit, Michigan; W. H. Parker, Secretary, 25 East Ninth Street, Cincinnati, Ohio. The Conference is an organization to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase the efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annual meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meeting, and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-second annual meeting of the Conference will be held in Denver, Colorado, June 10th to 17th, 1925 Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon payment of a membership fee of five dollars.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS—Lewis H. Carris, managing director; Mrs. Winifred Hathaway, secretary; 130 East 22nd St., New York. Objects: To furnish information, exhibits, lantern slides, lectures, personal service for local organizations and legislation, publish literature of movement —samples free, quantities at cost. Includes New York State Committee.

NATIONAL FEDERATION OF SETTLEMENTS—Robert A. Woods, sec'y; 20 Union Park, Boston. Develops broad forms of comparative study and concerted action in city, state and nation, for meeting the fundamental problems disclosed by settlement work, seek the higher and more democratic organization of neighborhood life.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING—Member, National Health Council—Anne A. Stevens, R.N., director, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York. For development and standardization of public health nursing. Maintains library and educational service. Official Magazine, "Public Health Nurse."

NATIONAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION SERVICE—315 Fourth Avenue, New York, N. Y. To obtain progressive legislation for physical education. Established at the request of a committee created by the United States Bureau of Education; 35 national organizations cooperating. Maintained by the Playground and Recreation Association of America.

NATIONAL TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. Dr. Livingston Farrand, president; Dr. Linsly R. Williams, managing director. Pamphlets on methods and programs for the prevention of tuberculosis. Publications sold and distributed through state associations in every state. Journal of the Outdoor Life, popular monthly magazine, $2.00 a year; American Review of Tuberculosis, medical journal, $8.00 a year; and Monthly Bulletin, house organ, free.

NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE—For social service among Negroes. L. Hollingsworth Wood, pres.; Eugene Kinckle Jones, exec. sec'y; 127 E. 23rd St., New York. Establishes committees of white and colored people to work out community problems. Trains Negro social workers. Publishes "Opportunity"—a "journal of Negro life."

NATIONAL WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE—Mrs. Raymond Robins, honorary president; Mrs. Maud Swartz, president; 311 South Ashland Blvd., Chicago, Ill. Stands for self-government in the work shop through organization and also for the enactment of protective legislation. Information given.

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STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912, of the Survey published semi-monthly at New York, N. Y., for October 1, 1924.

State of New York, } ss.
County of New York, }

Before me, a Commissioner of Deeds, in and for the State and county aforesaid, personally appeared Arthur Kellogg, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of The Survey, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business managers are: Publisher, Survey Associates, Inc., 112 East 19 Street, New York City; Editor, Paul U. Kellogg, 112 East 19 Street, New York City; Managing Editor, Geddes Smith, 112 East 19 Street, New York City; Business Managers, Arthur Kellogg, John D. Kenderdine, 112 East 19 Street, New York City.

2. That the owner is: (If the publication is owned by an individual his name and address, or if owned by more than one individual the name and address of each, should be given below; if the publication is owned by a corporation the name of the corporation and the names and addresses of the stockholders owning or holding one per cent or more of the total amount of stock should be given.) Survey Associates, Inc., 112 East 19 Street, New York City, a non-commercial corporation under the laws of the State of New York with over 1,600 members. It has no stocks or bonds. President, Robert W. deForest, 30 Broad Street, New York, N. Y.; Vice-Presidents, Julian W. Mack, P. O. Box 102, City Hall Station, New York, N. Y.; V. Everit Macy, "Chilmark," Scarborough-on-Hudson, N. Y.; Secretary, Ann R. Brenner, 112 East 19 Street, New York, N. Y.; Treasurer, Arthur Kellogg, 112 East 19 Street, New York, N. Y.

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[Signed] ARTHUR KELLOGG,
Business Manager.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 18th day of September, 1924.

[Seal] MARTHA HOHMANN,
Commissioner of Deeds, City of New York,
New York County Clerk's No. 148; New York County Register's No. 26032.
My Commission Expires May 20, 1926.

(*Continued from page* 105)

that first appeared in 1800. The title of the original book was National Education in the United States of America. The book was written at the request of Thomas Jefferson, and was intended as a plan for a national system of education for this country. It seems probable, says the translator, that it contains the theories of both the author and Jefferson modified and harmonized to form one detailed plan. Students of the evolution of American culture and institutions will find it full of interest. The book appears for the first time in English in this edition. J. K. H.

Community and Civic Affairs

THE AMERICAN CONSTITUTION AS IT PROTECTS PRIVATE RIGHTS, *by Frederic Jesup Stimson. Charles Scribners's Sons. 239 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THERE ARE always two opposing schools of thought concerning governmental (and in this country especially federal) action: the one looking to the history and philosophy of our governmental system, the other looking to the accomplishment of an immediate end. More generally social workers find themselves in the latter class. Here is a breezily (not to say loosely) written exposition of the former point of view, stressing the inhibitory provisions of the Constitution, and generally leaning toward the "less-government-the-better" position. G. S.

POLITICAL PARTIES AND ELECTORAL PROBLEMS, *by Robert C. Brooks. Harper and Bros. 638 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS BOOK is intended "to interpret American political parties with a view primarily to the needs of the voters and those who are soon to become voters." Its bulk, unfortunately, will perhaps discourage those prospective voters who attack it single-handed, but it should be useful in college class-rooms, women's clubs, and other places where a certain mutual support is available to seekers after knowledge. The last chapter, on Active Participation in Politics, might well be reprinted as a separate unit in more convenient form. G. S.

Industry and Economics

THE COOPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN RUSSIA, *by Elsie Terry Blanc. Macmillan Co. 324 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

IT IS AMAZING that among all the men and women who have written about Russia during the past six years, there have been only one or two to write about the powerful cooperative movement of that country. And yet a study of this movement under the three governments might throw a great deal of light upon so many of the problems that are vexing us economic, social, political. Mrs. Blanc does not pretend to answer for us all the bothersome questions that confront us. But she does give a very comprehensive picture of cooperation from its earliest beginnings through the Revolution and until early in 1923. The facts are there for the theorist to use as best he can. Mrs. Blanc does not claim to be a deep student of the principles underlying the cooperative movements in other countries. On the other hand she is not a propagandist and for this we may be thankful. And she is a keen student and investigator of the subject in hand, for which even greater thanks are due. Cooperation is, for the Russians, more than a system of food distribution. The cooperatives have established thousands of elementary schools, hundreds of high schools, even complete universities. One provincial union alone established 170 libraries, 300 reading circles, and purchased 42,000 books within six months. Mrs. Blanc's one book tells us more about the economic development of the Russian peasants and workers than dozen of the popular propagandist publications of recent years. Cedric Long

Other Books Received

SAMUEL THE SEEKER, *by Upton Sinclair. New Edition. Upton Sinclair, Pasadena, Calif. 315 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE METROPOLIS, *by Upton Sinclair. New Edition. Upton Sinclair, Pasadena, Calif. 376 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
JIMMIE HIGGINS, *by Upton Sinclair. New Edition. Upton Sinclair, Pasadena, Calif. 282 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE JOURNAL OF ARTHUR STIRLING, *by Upton Sinclair. New Edition. Upton Sinclair, Pasadena, Calif. 207 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
MANASSAS, *by Upton Sinclair. New Edition. Upton Sinclair, Pasadena Calif. 412 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

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SOCIAL WORK SHOPTALK

THE National Information Bureau celebrated its annual meeting October 10 by presenting a fourteen months' study of the Salvation Army, made under the direction of the Bureau by Porter R. Lee and Walter W. Pettit, with the closest cooperation of the Army itself. The Salvation Army is a religious body which has an important social work program, a program, however, which is fundamentally spiritual in its aims. It has developed a self-contained brotherhood with an enormous spiritual driving power, and a morale which could well furnish material for study to other social and religious organizations. The authors of the study, while they found that the relief work of the Army probably is "no less efficient than the majority of other American churches attempting general relief," urge the general adoption of certain standards and methods used in a few of its larger centers, and make other administrative suggestions. The report will be discussed in an article in a forthcoming issue of The Survey.

THE COMPANY of Americans who have been at Geneva attending the sessions of the League of Nations were shocked at the death there in mid-September, due to a heart lesion, of Charles Zueblin whose keen and stimulating leadership in the fields of civics, economics and sociology has been a force since the early nineties. Born in Indiana, a graduate of the University of Pennsylvania with degrees from Northwestern, Yale and Leipzig, Professor Zueblin became an instructor in sociology at the University of Chicago in 1892, rising in ten years to full professorship and continuing as such through 1908. Boston later became his headquarters and there for three years he edited The Twentieth Century Magazine. His books, "American Municipal Progress," 1902, revised in 1915, "A Decade of Civic Development," 1905, "The Religion of a Democrat," 1908, and "Democracy and the Overman," 1911, show the range and dynamic impulse of the man as an American facing the new century. But it was on the lecture platform, and especially in the developing years of the University extension movement in the Middle West, that he touched the imagination and challenged the social conceptions of a generation of young people. He was the first secretary of the Chicago Society for University Extension in 1892, and secretary that year of the class study division of the University Extension Department of the University of Chicago. In the years succeeding, in a hundred towns and cities of the Great Lakes region, Professor Zueblin's lectures were a leaven the value of which could scarcely be over-estimated. He made his audiences see social institutions, their communities, their economic life with fresh eyes. He combined a searching courage with an appreciation of the spiritual values of life and art and a robust faith in the processes of democracy. Nor was he merely a speaker. He will long be remembered in Chicago as the founder of the Northwestern University Settlement, he was the president of the American League for Civic Improvement in 1901-2 and member of the Chicago Special Park Commission in 1901-5. H. G. Wells was a visitor at the Zueblin home in Geneva the evening before he died. With Mr. Zueblin were Mrs. Zueblin and his daughter, who has been acting as secretary of the Filene peace prize contest and who has some of her father's rare qualities.

THE cautious movement for betterment of the cooperative relations of social agencies in New York city has reached another milestone—and a big one—with the acceptance by W. Frank Persons of the secretaryship of the committee organized last spring after the Better Times contest for a plan of coordination. The committee, which describes its purpose in its name—"for the further coordination of charitable and social work in the city of New York"—is headed by Robert W. de Forest. It was originally composed of the judges of the contest, but has been enlarged by the election of Cornelius N. Bliss, Jr., Raymond B. Fosdick, J. Byron Deacon, Allen T. Burns, Shelby M. Harrison, Barry C. Smith, LeRoy E. Bowman and Harry F. Guggenheim.

THESE pages have chronicled Sherman Conrad's successive migrations from Pittsburgh to Cincinnati to Wilkes-Barre. He now goes to New Orleans to become executive of the newly formed community chest. Other fall changes in federation personnel include the appointment of Titus C. Rohrbaugh, a Cleveland graduate, to head the staff at Roanoke, Va., the appointment of Robert B. Reed, fresh from the summer training course at Columbus, to be secretary of the council of social agencies of Augusta, Ga., and the moving of Edwin C. Eklund from the Canton Welfare Federation to the new community chest in Springfield, O.

THE APPOINTMENT of George Clarke to be general secretary of the Family Welfare Association of Montreal brings him into direct partnership with J. Howard T. Falk, secretary of the council of social agencies—an interesting sequel to the fact that Mr. Clarke has served for several years as general secretary of the Social Welfare Commission in Winnipeg which Mr. Falk was instrumental in organizing.

A SOCIAL WORKER I KNOW.

BY JESS PERLMAN

He serves . . . and struts; he cannot give
  Himself and leave himself unsung . . .
He'd gladly die that they might live
  Who less from life's rare stores had wrung;
But of his dying hour, half
  He'd use to write his epitaph.

There is no questioning his great
  Unflagging service to his neighbors;
But like a child whose drawings wait
  For names, he labels all his labors . . .
He serves and struts, as peacocks must,
  Trailing his glory in the dust.

BULLETIN BOARD

NATIONAL RECREATION CONGRESS: Atlantic City. October 16-21. Secretary, H. S. Braucher, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York.

NEBRASKA CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Lincoln. October 19-21. Secretary, William R. Blumenthal, Lyne Building, Omaha.

AMERICAN PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION: Detroit October 20-23. Secretary, Homer N. Calver, 370 Seventh Ave., New York, N. Y.

NEW YORK STATE COUNTY CHILDREN'S COURT JUDGES: Albany. October 24-25. Secretary, Frederick A. Moran, N. Y. State Probation Commission, Albany.

ILLINOIS STATE COUNCIL OF RED CROSS CHAPTERS: Peoria, October 24. Chairman, Ralph V. Field, Galesburg.

MICHIGAN STATE COUNCIL OF RED CROSS CHAPTERS: Detroit. October 25. Chairman, F. A. Aldrich, Flint.

TEXAS CONFERENCE of SOCIAL WELFARE: Austin. October 26-29. Secretary, W. E. Gettys, University of Texas, Austin.

ILLINOIS TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION: Decatur. October 27-28. Secretary, J. W. Becker, 516½ East Monroe Street, Springfield.

PENNSYLVANIA GRADUATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Reading. October 27-November 1. Secretary, Gertrude Heatley, South Side Hospital, Pittsburgh.

NEW YORK STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Syracuse, October 28-30. Secretary, Helen Young, Prebysterian Hospital, New York City.

WISCONSIN STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Milwaukee, October 28-30. Secretary, Erna Kowalke, 85 Oneida St., Milwaukee.

ILLINOIS STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Champaign. October 29-31 Secretary, Anna Cole Smith, 2342 S. Dearborn St., Chicago.

NEW JERSEY STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Morristown, November 7. Secretary, Josephine Swenson, 12 Gordon Place, Rahway, New Jersey.

MARYLAND STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Frederick, November 7-8. President, Howard C. Hill, Social Service Club, Baltimore.

MISSISSIPPI STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Hattiesburg. October 30-31. Secretary, Mrs. James A. Cameron, 511 Bay St., Hattiesburg.

MINNESOTA STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Minneapolis. November 5-8. Secretary, Dora Cornelisen, Old State Capitol, St. Paul.

AMERICAN COUNTRY LIFE ASSOCIATION: Columbus, Ohio. November 7-11. Secretary, Henry Israel, Room 1849, Grand Central Terminal Building, New York N. Y.

AMERICAN DENTAL ASSOCIATION: Dallas, Texas. November 10-14. Secretary, Otto U. King, 5 N. Wabash Ave., Chicago, Ill.

NEW JERSEY STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: New Brunswick. November 10-11. Secretary, Glover Dunseath, 21 Washington St., Newark.

NEW YORK STATE PROBATION OFFICERS: Syracuse. November 10-11. Secretary, Frederick A. Moran, N. Y. State Probation Commission, Albany.

NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION: Syracuse. November 11-13. Secretary, Richard W. Wallace, Drawer 17, The Capitol, Albany.

MASSACHUSETTS CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Swampscott. November 11-13. Secretary, Richard K. Conant, 37 State House, Boston.

Florida State Nurses Association: Pensacola. Nov. 18-19. Secretary, Elizabeth Steil, Riverside Hospital, Jacksonville.

GEORGIA STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Athens. November 17-19. Secretary, Jesie Candlish, 20 Ponce de Leon Ave., Atlanta.

IOWA STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Des Moines, November 18-20 Secretary, Blanche E. Edwards, 1103 Lafayette St., Waterloo.

AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION: Cincinnati, Ohio, November 19-22, Secretary, Ray Everett, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York, N. Y.

ILLINOIS CONFERENCE ON PUBLIC WELFARE: Moline. November 23-25. Secretary, Mary Polmeter, Waukegan.

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PSYCHOLOGIST and psychiatric worker, trained observer with mature judgment; resident position. Apply Superintendent Jewish Children's Society, Station E, Baltimore, Md.

WORKER, Jewess preferred, to assist in directing girls' activities and clubs in large Settlement. State experience, references, salary, etc. 4956 SURVEY.

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